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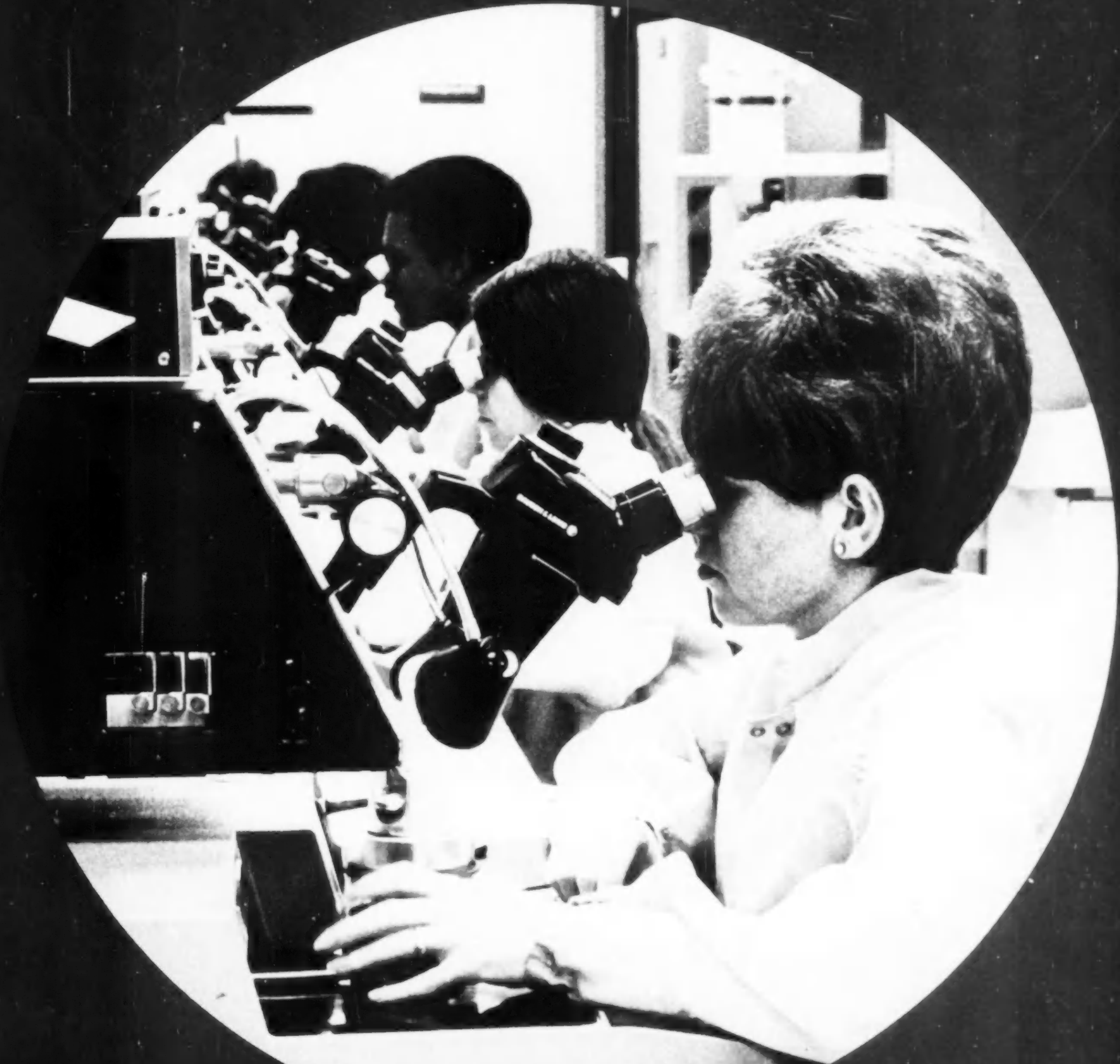

Women at Work

manpower
volume 4 number 6
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

Looking at Women as Workers

You may tempt the upper classes
With your villainous demi-tasses,
But Heaven will protect the Working Girl.

Edgar Smith's rhyme notwithstanding, working women undoubtedly feel that their place and plight in the labor market require a bit more concrete attention. It is now getting just that, and not only from Women's Lib. Under contract with the Manpower Administration, the Ohio State University Center for Human Resource Research is embarked on a monumental study to find out how women progress—or don't progress—when they go to work, and how working interacts with the other facets of their lives.

The scope of the Ohio State study ranges from the kinds of jobs women have, to how they like them, to attitudes—of women and men—about working mothers. MANPOWER assistant editor Patricia Marshall has culled some of the more notable facts, figures, and observations from the Ohio State study, and her report begins on page 2.

One of the ways the working lives of women differ from men's is that many women return to, or first enter, the labor force when they are in their thirties. And that can be a frustrating, not to say traumatic, experience. This fact was largely responsible for the formation more than 6 years ago of Washington Opportunities for Women.

WOW, as it is usually called, is a nonprofit, mostly volunteer organization that started out helping mature middle-class women who were seeking a job, often after a protracted absence from the labor force. WOW since has expanded its activities to embrace a wider constituency. For many women it has become *Someplace to Turn*. The WOW story can be found on page 16.

Ellis Rottman

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Women at Work

by Patricia Marshall

Researchers Produce a 'Motion Picture' on How Two Age Groups Fare in the Labor Market

> *"Many aspects of women's work, both market and nonmarket, remain relatively unexplored. At a time when widespread attention is being focused on the rights of women, it seems particularly important to reexamine their work roles as well. . . . For while the current interest in women's equality is not limited to the area of jobs and careers, changes in labor force status are a critical part of the new movement. Until adequate information is available on the work lives of women, questions relating to equality of the sexes will be very difficult to resolve."*
>
> Juanita Kreps
> SEX IN THE MARKETPLACE: AMERICAN WOMEN AT WORK

In days of yore, it was widely known—at least among men—that women are irrational creatures who are governed more by feelings than by facts. According to this view, when women acted differently from men it was because they were incapable of doing otherwise and not because the facts of their lives were different.

If any cobwebs remain from this kind of thought, current studies for the Manpower Administration by the Ohio State University Center for Human Resource Research should help to clear them away. In this project, directed by Herbert S. Parnes, the Center is gathering a massive body of information about women in the labor force and the economic, educational, and other facts of their lives that have shaped their attitudes about work and helped to make their situation what it is.

The Center is focusing on two age groups: 30 to 44, years when large numbers of women reenter the labor force, and 14 to 24, when young women make many of their first important decisions about homes and careers. In each group, a national sample of 5,000 persons is being surveyed periodically for 5 years. Each group includes 3,500 whites and 1,500 blacks, with the number of blacks three times their proportion in the population to provide for finer breakdowns than would otherwise be possible. The Center surveys seek information on the women's education and training, work histories, experience in getting and holding jobs, family backgrounds, health, attitudes about work, employment-related needs such as day care for children, and any changes that have taken place in these aspects of their lives since the preceding survey.

Although this research is still underway—the final interviews will be made this year for women 30 to 44 and next year for women 14 to 24—the Center's reports on its first interviews with the two groups of women suggest the shape of things to come. While some of the findings are hardly surprising (few women, for example, have professional and technical jobs), a major contribution of the studies is their extensive analysis of the relationships between women as workers and women as schoolgirls, wives, mothers, heads of families, and single individuals.

Through its periodic surveys the Center is getting what it describes as "a motion

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Mrs. Marshall is assistant editor of Manpower.

picture" of the same person over a 5-year span. What shows up is not only a woman's situation at a given point in time but also changes taking place and events which seem to cause them.

In *Dual Careers, Volume 1,*[1] an account of the 1967 and first interviews with mature women, researchers found that typing and shorthand—occupationally "sexist" though they may be—have had a big payoff for women. Training in these skills made it possible for women to get higher paying white-collar jobs rather than more erratic and low-skilled forms of employment with low hourly and even lower annual earnings.

But while typing and shorthand have served as valuable tools for women, far fewer blacks (19 percent) than whites (56 percent) in the older group of women had both subjects when they were in high school. Black women in the survey suffered an even more serious educational disadvantage—three-fifths failed to finish high school, compared with less than a third of the white women. Moreover, blacks were more than twice as likely as whites to have 8 or less years of school.

Findings Point to Race Bias

After leaving school, about a third of all women with work experience took courses or training of some kind, and 15 percent received certificates needed to hold down jobs. To some extent, blacks seem to narrow the black-white educational gap with occupational training once they are out of school. Proportionately, more blacks than whites had trade and professional certificates and 19 percent of the blacks compared with 16 percent of the whites had 6 months or more of occupational training.

The well-known effect of schooling upon wages is underscored by the Center's findings. Whites with 13 or more years of education earned on the average nearly one and three-quarters times as much as those with 8 or less years in school. Among blacks, earnings were two and a half times as much for the better educated group. Partly responsible for the black showing, researchers say, are old patterns of prejudice and employment that have drawn blacks into such disparate jobs as domestic service and teaching but allowed them to enter few occupations in between.

Other signs of discrimination against black women were evident in the finding that black women who had studied typing and shorthand were less likely to have started work in a white-collar job than were white women with neither kind of training. Similarly, black women who did get white-collar jobs had completed considerably more years of school than had the average white woman in such jobs.

Most of the 30- to 44-year-old women were married, lived with their husbands, and had children under 18 living at home. At some time during 1966 (the year before the first survey) most of the women also had dual careers as homemakers and breadwinners.

Not surprisingly, the care of young children reduced the likelihood that women worked outside the home. Nevertheless, 25 percent of the white married women and 44 percent of nonmarried whites who had small children were working at the time of the survey. Corresponding figures for blacks were even higher—41 percent and 52 percent. The implications are clear for womanpower planners and employers: Day care arrangements are vital to many working women. At the same time, some women meet day care needs through informal arrangements with relatives living in the home and the like. In the Center study, 23 percent of the whites and 30 percent of the blacks who worked full time and had children under 6 said they did not need to make special day care arrangements. There was great variation in child care costs, with the average much lower for blacks than for whites. White women were able to pay for more expensive arrangements, and blacks were more apt to use relatives for child care.

Pressures upon black women to go to work can be particularly intense. The very high proportion in the labor force of married black mothers of young children dramatically illustrates this. Moreover, almost three times as many black married women as white lived in households where the total annual income, exclusive of their earnings, was under $3,000.

On the job, most white women in the Center study were white-collar workers; most black women were in service jobs. But some broad changes appear to be in the making. When researchers compared the youngest with the oldest women in the study, they found fewer young blacks in domestic service and more in blue-collar, clerical, and sales work. More whites were moving into clerical, professional, and technical work and away from blue-collar employment.

Impact on Family Income

There were stunning differences between the jobs women held in government and in private industry. Far greater numbers of women in government had professional and technical jobs (43 percent of the whites and 34 percent of the blacks) than those in private industry (8 percent of the whites and 2 percent of the blacks). About the same proportion of white women had clerical jobs in private industry as in government, but only 10 percent of the blacks in private industry had clerical jobs compared with 32 percent in government.

The absence of domestic jobs in government somewhat distorts these statistics, but the great variations also reflect government policy on equal opportunity employment, the Center says.

Women in both races who worked full time made considerable contributions to family incomes. Married white women had median earnings of $3,600—almost a third of the median income of $11,000 of these women's families. Blacks contributed more than a third with median earnings of $2,900 and a median family income of $8,300.

Among nonmarried women who lived with a child or other relative, more than four-fifths of the blacks and nearly two-thirds of the whites had less than $3,000 coming into the family from sources other than their own earnings, making them an important means of family support.

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[1] *Dual Careers, Volume 1,* Manpower Research Monograph No. 21, was written by John R. Shea, Ruth S. Spitz, and Frederick A. Zeller and Associates. This report is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 for $2.25. Please enclose payment with order.

'Compared with women 30 to 44 years old, the younger generation was considerably higher up the job ladder. In greater proportions, young women in both races were in white-collar jobs.'

Family health problems as well as income needs influence women's job decisions. Some women have husbands whose working is limited by illness or disability. In the Center's study, the proportion of these women rose among whites (differences by race were insignificant) from 9 percent of women in their early thirties to 15 percent of those in their early forties. There were also women, including those not married, who had a parent or some other relative who was in poor health living with them.

Of all white women in households with health problems of these kinds more than a quarter said the situation helped them make up their minds about working—half stayed home because they were needed there; the other half took jobs to meet medical expenses. Among blacks, the usual response to family health problems was to stay home or to take only part-time work.

What do women think about mothers working? And do their feelings about this depend on their own family situation?

Among married women, less than a quarter of the whites and more than a third of the blacks believed it is definitely or probably all right for mothers to work. Neither the presence nor the ages of children in their own homes bore much relation to their opinions on the subject. "This is a rather surprising finding," the Center report says. "It suggests that women are expressing fundamental views . . . rather than simply reflecting—or rationalizing—their current personal circumstances."

However, the report sheds some light on how women in this age group formed these views. Married women were asked how their husbands would feel about their working. Among whites, those reporting a strongly favorable reaction by their husbands were three times as likely to have positive attitudes about mothers taking jobs as the women reporting strongly negative reactions by their husbands. These husband-wife relationships in attitudes were even stronger among blacks.

Husbands' opinions influenced women's actions as well as women's theories. White women reporting husbands as favorable to the idea of their working had jobs for almost 33 weeks in 1966, compared with 9 weeks for those who said their husbands were opposed. Among blacks, the husbands-for group worked 34 weeks; the husbands-against group worked 20 weeks.

Most women who are 30 to 44 have been unfaithful to the labor force, having abandoned it early to marry and have children. For this they may have to pay a great price, the Center's findings suggest. Taking all married women with children (including those who have always worked —a relatively small number), 20 percent of the whites and 11 percent of the blacks reversed the great tradition of working one's way up in the world. From their longest premarital job to their most recent job, they went down in occupational status. The largest number of women had jobs with the same status as those they had in their younger years. In either case there was a failure of mature women to progress beyond the jobs of their youth.

Better Jobs in Urban Areas

Understandable as this may be to people who have worked continuously, there are considerations arguing for the use of remedies. Refresher and upgrade training courses, taken at the start of their new careers, might keep women from being penalized the rest of their working lives (at 35, a married woman who has completed her family has a work life expectancy of 24 years) for an early absence from the labor force to marry and have children.

Among other facets of working women's lives the Center researchers explored were:

- The appeal of urban jobs: Black women in the largest cities were four times more likely to have clerical jobs and only one-sixth as likely to work as domestics than those where the labor force was under 100,000. Big cities also offered higher wages—whites earned 27 percent more; blacks earned 69 percent more.
- Attachment to work: Women are serious about working and intend to keep

at it. Three-fifths of employed whites and two-thirds of employed blacks said they would continue working even if they had enough money to live comfortably without working.

- Job satisfaction: Most women liked their jobs very much; only 5 percent expressed some dislike. What they liked best were the nature of their work and its variety and degree of responsibility. Far less important (except for white women in blue-collar jobs) were wages, hours, working conditions, and the quality of supervision.

The Center's other study of women, reported in *Years for Decision, Volume 1,*[2] takes a look at a different generation—women 14 to 24 years old. During this age span young women emerge from childhood and begin assuming adult identities as students, wives, mothers, and workers.

Half of the group in the Center study was in school. Among high school students, whites were considerably more likely than blacks (40 percent compared with 25 percent) to be in a college preparatory program. The girls' educational interests, however, were much the same: Humanities was the most popular subject, mathematics the one they liked least, and nearly all liked school.

Teenage girls have high educational ambitions, Center researchers learned. Among 14- to 17-year-olds who were still in school, about 70 percent wanted to continue past high school, most of them hoping to stay in school for at least another 4 years. Such aspirations, researchers say, are unrealistically high. They note that in the year before their survey only about 29 percent of women 20 to 24 years old had completed 1 or more years of college. The Center expects to explore in future reports what happens, and why, to the girls' dreams of higher education.

Students were not the only ones with educational dreams, however, for nearly all of the out-of-school youth in the sur-

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'The proportion of young women in both races who worked as blue-collar operatives, in domestic, or other service jobs was lower than among the older women.'

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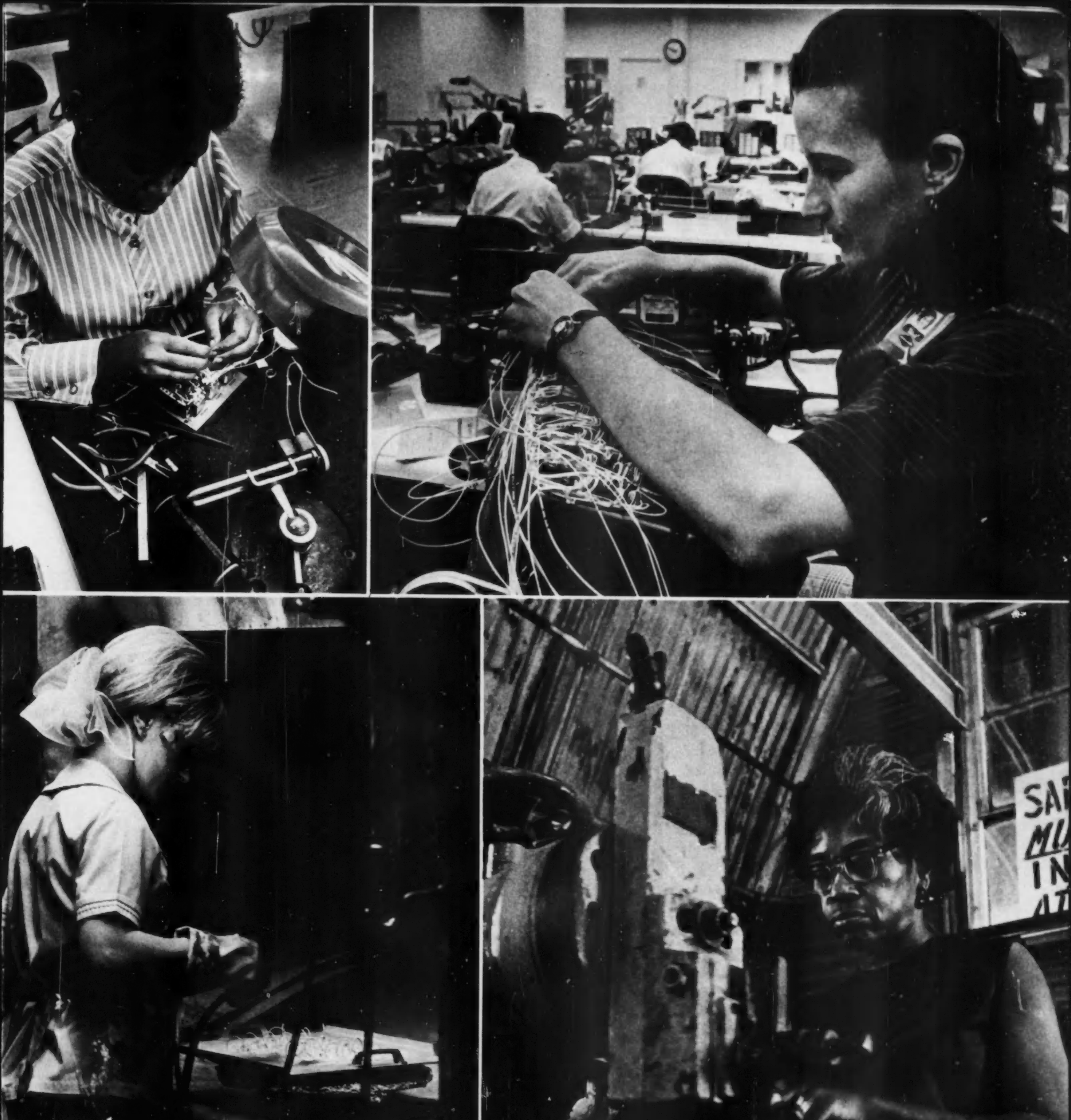
[2] *Years for Decision, Volume 1,* Manpower Research Monograph No. 24, was written by John R. Shea, Roger D. Roderick, Frederick A. Zeller, and Andrew I. Kohen and Associates. The report is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 for $2.00. Please enclose payment with order.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Women at Work

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vey wanted more education and training. Education proved important in getting a job. Young women with 16 or more years of school had the highest labor force participation rate during the survey week. All the blacks and 90 percent of the whites with 16 or more years of school were in the labor force. Employment of the others dropped along with years of school—only 32 percent of the whites and 37 percent of the blacks with 8 or less years of school were in the labor force during the week.

Among out-of-school young women, blacks had the poorest preparation for work. Almost half did not graduate from high school compared with a quarter of the whites. The proportion of blacks who had neither high school typing nor shorthand—skills which proved useful to mature women—was more than twice as great as that of the whites. Almost two-thirds of the 18- to 24-year-old blacks who were no longer in school (and more than half the whites) had taken no vocational courses outside regular school.

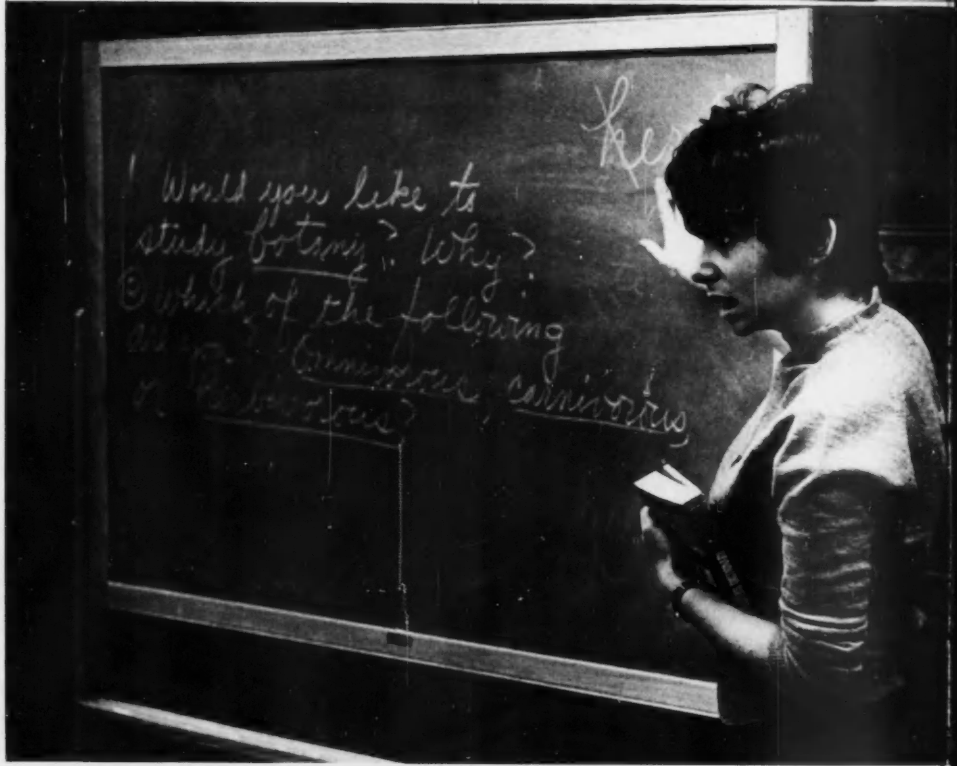
Age, Job Differences Noted

When young women work, what do they do? Race helps write the answer. Eight percent of the employed out-of-school 18- to 24-year-old blacks had professional and technical jobs, compared with 19 percent of the whites. Black/white percentages for other occupations were: Clerical jobs, 34 and 46; sales, 1 and 4; blue-collar jobs (nearly all were operatives rather than craftswomen or forewomen), 22 and 14; domestic work, 13 and 2; and other service jobs, 20 and 13. A few young women were scattered in other types of work.

Compared with women 30 to 44 years old, the younger generation was considerably higher up the job ladder. In greater proportions, young women in both races were in white-collar jobs. Moreover, intercolor differences in the white-collar group narrowed as a result of more blacks in clerical jobs. The proportion of young women in both races who worked as blue-collar operatives, in domestic, or other service jobs was lower than among the older women.

Like mature women, however, the

'. . . nearly all of the out-of-school youth in the survey wanted more education and training. Education proved important in getting a job.'



young found their best job opportunities in big cities. The ratio of blacks in clerical jobs climbed from 17 to 61 percentage points from smallest to largest labor markets and it dropped more than 20 percentage points for those working as domestics.

Young women also were affected by old customs that fasten sex labels on jobs. To measure the market for women workers, the Center constructed an index of demand. This yardstick, the Center report explains, "is simply an indicator of the extent to which the industrial structure of a community is such as to provide a large proportion of jobs that are normally held by women." Survey areas were identified as having either high or low employment demand for women. Labor force participation rates for out-of-school, 18- to 24-year-old women were between 9 and 10 percentage points higher in areas where there was high demand for women workers than in areas where the demand for women was low. Unmarried blacks who were 20 to 24 years old paid the greatest price in terms of jobs. Their labor force participation rate was 20 percentage points less in areas where women workers were in low demand.

Unemployment was high among the young women at the time of the Center survey early in 1968. For those who were unmarried, childless, and still in school, the unemployment rate for whites was 9.7 and for blacks, 25.2.

Part of the problem, Center researchers suggest, was that students' job demands were far too high. Irrespective of color, young students seemed to "display a marked lack of realism" in these demands, the Center says. "For example, among 14- to 17-year-old blacks, about one-sixth . . . were looking for sales work although none had sales positions on their last jobs and only 4 percent of their employed counterparts currently hold such positions." Wage requirements in both races also seemed overinflated to the researchers in the light of the girls' experience and the amounts that fellow students actually were earning.

To remedy such problems, there should be substantial improvement in the dissemination of labor market information to all female students, the Center says.

For young women no longer in school, unemployment rates were 17.6 for blacks and 9.8 for whites. The kind of education and training young women have appears to be an important factor in whether they get jobs. In the Center survey, girls who took a general education curriculum in high school were more likely to be out of work than those who took vocational, commercial, or college preparatory programs. However, blacks who prepared for but did not attend college also suffered high unemployment.

As expected from other Center findings, young women who had taken both typing and shorthand in high school did well in getting work. This also was true of women with professional or trade certificates, occupational training, or—in the case of whites—a background of precollege studies. Roughly the same proportions of women in both races had occupation-related training, most often clerical, outside the regular school system.

Attitudes on Working Mothers

To no one's surprise, children and husbands helped cut out young women's employment patterns. Single childless women were far more likely to have jobs than married women with children. But, once again, race made a difference in the extent to which this was true. The labor force participation rate for black women with neither husbands nor children was only about 19 percentage points higher than that for black women with both. Among whites, the variation was nearly 52 percentage points.

Undoubtedly, income needs (these were not explored in the study) would largely account for this interracial difference, but attitudes in each race about working mothers may be partly responsible. Center interviews turned up the fact that young white women were far more likely than blacks to oppose the idea of married women with children going to work. "We suspect that in addition to reflecting differences in family incomes, these differences between blacks and whites reflect a rather deeply rooted variation in the role expectations of young women growing up in the two communities," researchers say.

Blacks also were more likely to report their husbands had favorable attitudes toward their working. Center interviews of young mothers who were married, not in school, and not working turned up the fact that 64 percent of the blacks compared with 16 percent of the whites felt their husbands favored the idea.

When offered a hypothetical job, black women were more willing to accept it than whites, less likely to impose any conditions on the job, and more likely to expect that they would actually be looking for a job in the next 6 months.

Child care, of course, was a critical factor in many young women's decisions about work. Roughly, three-quarters of all mothers who worked needed to make regular day care arrangements. Three-fifths of the black mothers used a relative to care for their children; this was true of less than half of the whites.

The surveys of young and older women are part of Center studies for the Manpower Administration of four segments of the population. Other studies are concerned with young men 14 to 24 years old (see *Labor Market Experiences of Young Men* in MANPOWER, April 1972, which describes findings for this group) and men 45 to 59 years old. The Census Bureau collects and tabulates the study data for analysis by the Center.

This tremendous accumulation of information on U.S. workers will provide new insights, the Center says, into labor market processes and problems and will provide a better base than we now have for policies seeking to use the Nation's human resources more effectively and equitably.

As for the women's sector of these studies, the research is underway at a time when social attitudes in society about the roles of women and the rights of women are undergoing substantial change. A better understanding of women as workers may help bring about not only improved uses of womanpower but also may produce a better understanding than the past has handed down to us of women as persons. □

Highlights of the 1972 Manpower Report

An examination of the impact of Government policies on manpower supply and requirements and a wide-ranging analysis of the evolving job market for professionals are among the highlights of the 1972 MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT.

In submitting his report to Congress, President Nixon said that manpower policy should be "dedicated to attaining full opportunity for all American workers." He noted that March marked the beginning of the second decade of an active national manpower policy. The Manpower Development and Training Act became law in March 1962.

The 1972 MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT contains a comprehensive report by the Department of Labor, with chapters on: (1) The Manpower Reach of Federal Policies, (2) The Employment and Unemployment Record, (3) Recent Developments in Manpower Programs, (4) New Perspectives on Youth Unemployment, and (5) Manpower Issues in the Professions and Higher Education. There are two appendixes: (1) a progress report on labor market information and job matching programs and (2) statistical tables on manpower. Highlights of the five chapters follow.

The Manpower Reach of Federal Policies

In the 10 years since enactment of the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), manpower policy has focused mainly on training and work-experience programs for unemployed and underemployed people (chiefly the disadvantaged) and on efforts to improve the matching of workers and jobs. Yet there is hardly any aspect of Government policy or major Government program which does not have manpower implications—often very far-reaching ones. Government actions in fields as diverse as immigration, public assistance, national defense, health, housing, and wage policy have had a sharp impact on the size and skills of the work force, on manpower requirements nationally and in particular occupations and local areas, and hence on employment and unemployment.

The Federal Government has been involved in regulating the Nation's manpower supply since it first imposed quantitative restrictions on immigration in the early 1920's. Its contributions to upgrading the quality of this supply began even earlier—with the Morrill Act of 1862 which authorized grants of land for agricultural colleges. These contributions were greatly increased by the establishment during World War I of the Federal-State system of vocational education and have since been multiplied many times over. Between 1960 and 1971, Federal support of education at all levels increased more than fivefold. In addition, through the social security and welfare systems, Government policies have had complex and shifting effects on the number of people who seek work.

The Government also has had a major impact on manpower demand, most notably through changes in appropriation policies in defense and other fields where Government is the principal or sole supplier of funds or purchaser of goods and services. Between fiscal years 1964 and 1968, defense spending rose by over $27 billion, mainly because of the Vietnam war, leading to an increase of almost 2 million in defense-related employment. But defense spending declined rapidly after 1968 and defense-related employment fell from 7.8 million that year to 5.9 million in 1971. Many workers lost jobs they had obtained earlier during the defense boom.

Federal expenditures for the space program had an even sharper buildup—from about $750 million in fiscal 1961 to $5.9 billion in 1966—only to decline by over two-fifths from this peak figure by 1971. Consequently, the total number of workers on programs of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) rose from less than 47,000 in June 1960 to about 410,000 in June 1965, but totaled only 144,000 6 years later. Scientists and engineers were heavily affected by both the expansion and the contraction in the space program; in the spring of 1971, engineers formerly involved in space activities had an unemployment rate of 6.3 percent, more than twice the average rate for their profession.

The demand for health manpower also has been greatly affected by Federal spending under programs to help pay for medical care of the aged (Medicare) and persons in low-income families (Medicaid). In 1970, 5 years after these programs were enacted, the Federal contribution to personal health care exceeded $14 billion, compared with about $3 billion just before them. These programs have provided invaluable protection to millions of Americans. But the infusion of so much additional money at one time into the health care industry, where critical manpower (physicians and other professionals)

'Both the efficiency of the economy and the well-being of the country's workers would be enhanced by greater attention to the manpower implications of new and changing Government policies and programs.'

can be increased only slowly, also had a pronounced inflationary effect. The price of medical care rose by about 44 percent between 1965 and 1971, more than half again as fast as consumer prices generally.

Federal programs aimed at raising the incomes of farmers are another example of Government action with far-reaching manpower consequences. The primary emphasis has been on price supports for specific commodities, including, in recent years, incentive payments to farmers who limit acreage in specified crops. This Federal subsidy has had a major impact on agricultural employment and the farm population. By helping to reduce the number of workers directly employed in agriculture, it has accelerated the migration of farmers and farmworkers to the cities.

These are only a few examples of the manpower consequences of Government actions. Yet efforts to foresee and appraise these consequences have so far been fragmentary, at best, leading to avoidable inefficiencies in program operations and unnecessarily severe adjustments for workers, industries, and local communities. Both the efficiency of the economy and the well-being of the country's workers would be enhanced by greater attention to the manpower implications of new and changing Government policies and programs.

The Employment and Unemployment Record

The year 1971 marked a critical transition in the Nation's economy and labor markets. The President undertook a broad New Economic Policy designed to check the rise in wages, prices, and rents and to restore full employment with price stability. Unemployment leveled off in 1971, and employment growth resumed after midyear. However, since labor force increases kept pace with employment gains, the unemployment rate hovered around 6 percent throughout the year. Significant developments included:

- The civilian labor force, which had risen by 2 million in each of the 2 previous years, grew very little in the first half of 1971. In the second half of the year, however, the labor force expanded vigorously again and, on an annual basis, was 1.4 million higher in 1971 than in 1970. The reduction in the Armed Forces contributed about 400,000 to this increase in the civilian labor force.
- Total employment remained around 78½ million in the first half of 1971 but rose strongly thereafter, reaching 80 million in the last quarter. This was over 1 million above the previous peak attained in the first quarter of 1970. For 1971 as a whole, the gain was a little less than half a million, compared with almost three-quarters of a million in 1970 and nearly 2 million in 1969.
- The gain in employment was concentrated in the 20- to 24-year age group, mostly young men returning to civilian life after leaving the Armed Forces. Employment of men aged 25 and over declined, while small gains were posted for women of that age and for teenagers.
- Employment grew moderately in service-producing industries during 1971, offsetting job reductions in goods-producing industries. By the fourth quarter, employment had stabilized in manufacturing, which accounts for well over four-fifths of all payroll jobs in the goods-producing sector (exclusive of agriculture).
- Labor productivity in the private sector, as measured by output per man-hour, rose in 1971 by about 3½ percent—a faster rate than the long-run average gain—after 2 years of less than 1 percent annual growth. In the fourth quarter of 1971, as the uptrend in labor compensation slackened, the rise in labor costs per unit of output was sharply reduced.
- Despite the renewed expansion in employment in late 1971, unemployment fluctuated around 5 million throughout the year. The jobless rates for most major groups in the labor force remained about the same from quarter to quarter, but the rate for Negro workers drifted upward and was above 10 percent in the last half of the year. In 1971 as a whole, however, the Negro-to-white ratio of unemployment rates was unchanged from 1970, at 1.8 to 1, compared with a ratio of more than 2 to 1 in preceding years.

Recent Developments in Manpower Programs

The major developments of 1971 in manpower policy and programs centered on new legislation, passed and proposed. Leading the list of manpower measures enacted was the Emergency Employment Act, which makes possible over 145,000 federally supported jobs for unemployed and underemployed workers in public service agencies during fiscal 1972 and a somewhat greater number the following year.

Other legislation with manpower implications included new laws extending unemployment insurance benefits in States with high unemployment rates; strengthening the work requirement for adults receiving welfare payments under the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) Program and increasing the Federal share of funding of the Work Incentive (WIN) Program for AFDC recipients; requiring employable food stamp recipients to register for work with public employment offices; giving tax credits to employers who hire WIN enrollees; and authorizing deductions for child-care expenses from personal income taxes.

Together, this new legislation could significantly affect the scope and direction of the country's manpower programs. Of even greater moment for these programs is the comprehensive restructuring which would be a central feature of the proposed Manpower Revenue Sharing Act. And the broad reform of the welfare system proposed by the President includes a large manpower program as an essential component.

In on-going federally assisted work and training programs, new enrollments reached an all-time high of 2.1 million during fiscal 1971, nearly 15 percent more than in 1970. The program with the largest increase (from about 480,000 to over 600,000 first-time enrollments between 1970 and 1971) was the Neighborhood Youth Corps. In 1972, overall new enrollments in work and training programs are expected to exceed 2.3 million, with most of the increases accounted for by the new Public Employment Program (PEP) set up to implement the Emergency Employment Act.

This act makes funds available to State and local governments to hire unemployed and underemployed people when the national unemployment rate equals or exceeds 4.5 percent for 3 consecutive months. It also provides additional financial assistance for local areas with unemployment rates of 6 percent or more for 3 consecutive months.

Information on the first 45,000 people hired under PEP suggests that the intent of the act with respect to the groups which should receive priority is being fulfilled. Nearly half were veterans, mostly of the Vietnam era. One-third were disadvantaged persons, including 10 percent who were public assistance recipients. Almost 30 percent were Negroes or members of other minority groups.

Speeding the employment of returning veterans was a major objective of Federal manpower programs in 1971. Steps taken to forward this objective included expansion of the Transition Program, under which servicemen close to separation are given job training and other services, and adjustment of the priorities for enrollment in MDTA training programs so as to facilitate veterans' participation. Another important move was an Executive order requiring that Federal contractors and Federal agencies list their job openings with the public employment service, which gives veterans priority in referrals.

Innovative efforts also were made in 1971 to better meet the needs of several special groups—migrant farmworkers, Indians, the Spanish-speaking, welfare recipients, and offenders. In addition, the Federal-State employment service system, which is the Nation's principal manpower agency, continued to update its policies and programs. To make possible more efficient matching of workers and jobs, modern computer technology has been introduced, with Job Banks operating in over 100 metropolitan areas in 43 States by the end of 1971 and efforts underway to link area Job Banks into statewide systems.

Still another objective in 1971 was to give State and local governments more responsibility for the planning and management of manpower programs, pending the enactment of new manpower legislation. The State and local Cooperative Area Manpower Planning Systems (CAMPS) committees, which have so far provided chiefly an interagency information exchange, are being restructured as advisory councils, appointed by Governors and Mayors and responsible to them. Regional Manpower Administrators have been instructed insofar as possible to fund manpower projects in accordance with the recommendations of the CAMPS committees. Moreover, increased funds and staffing are being provided for CAMPS activities.

Highlights of 1971 for the unemployment insurance system included a major contribution to stabilization of the economy through the payment of $5.6 billion in benefits to some 7 million unemployed workers. Among these were 400,000 Vietnam-era veterans, for whom $300 million in unemployment insurance benefits helped to ease the transition from military service to the civilian job market. The system also geared up to serve the nearly 5 million additional workers (mostly employees of very small firms) given unemployment insurance coverage under the 1970 Employment Security Amendments, which brought the total number covered by the program to more than 63 million persons by January 1972.

New Perspectives on Youth Unemployment

High teenage unemployment, particularly among blacks, is one of the country's most critical manpower problems. Workers aged 16 to 19 have for years had an unemployment rate four or five times that for adults aged 25 and over (in 1971, 16.9 percent compared with 4.0 percent). Black teenagers have had a rate of joblessness more than double that for white youth. In the summer months, teenagers' job-finding problems have been much intensified, as both students and new high school graduates have flooded into the labor force.

Young workers' high unemployment rates partly reflect their frequent exposure to unemployment as they enter and reenter the labor market after periods of schooling or vacation or as they try out different short-term jobs. The sharp increase in the number of teenage workers during the middle and late 1960's—because of the upsurge in birth rates after World War II—also intensified their job-finding problems. Employers' attitudes toward young workers, competition from middle-aged women returning to the labor market, and the problems created by child labor and minimum wage laws are additional factors contributing to youth unemployment.

The general upturn in business activity now underway should bring renewed gains in employment of youth, as well as adults. Furthermore, the demographic factors influencing the job market situation of young workers will be much more favorable in the case of white—though not of black—youth during the present decade than the preceding one (see chart 1). The number of white teenagers in the total labor force is expected to rise by only 5 percent between 1970 and 1980, compared with 46 percent over the preceding 10 years. In contrast, a 44 percent growth in the number of black youth in the work force is ex-

> '. . . employers should reduce their emphasis on a high school diploma in hiring for jobs which can be performed successfully without one.'

pected from 1970 to 1980, nearly as rapid as the 49 percent increase during the 1960's.

All groups of youth have rates of unemployment far above that for adults. But school dropouts and minority group members generally are much more severely affected by joblessness than other teenagers. Immediate remedial measures are needed for these groups, at the same time that long-range reforms in career preparation and the school-to-work transition process are needed for all youth not bound for college.

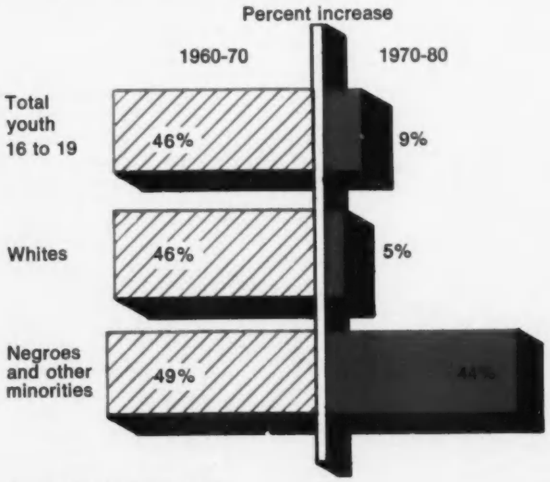
One step which could quickly open more jobs for high school dropouts would be the elimination of artificial hiring requirements. In particular, employers should reduce their emphasis on a high school diploma in hiring for jobs which can be performed successfully without one. A lower legal minimum wage for teenage workers than for adults should also help to make youngsters more attractive to employers and thus tend to reduce their unemployment rates.

The public employment service system can play an important role in promoting youth employment by strengthened placement and counseling services for youth and encouraging the hiring of young workers. In addition, the Federal Government's continuing endeavor to promote and enforce equal employment opportunity can be of major importance in overcoming discriminatory barriers faced by black youth.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Job Corps, and other federally financed manpower programs are aimed at giving immediate aid to disadvantaged youngsters. These programs have led to productive employment for many thousands of extremely disadvantaged young people.

Chart 1

Increases in the teenage labor force will slow greatly in the 1970-80 decade for whites but not for Negroes.



Source: Department of Labor

Effecting a smooth transition from school to work for the Nation's youth calls, however, for basic restructuring of this process and the institutions involved in it. It will require radical changes in thinking about the role schools should play in preparing youngsters for work and the help young people should be given in selecting and preparing for a career.

Manpower Issues in Professions and Higher Education

The rapid change from a general scarcity of highly educated personnel to an increasingly ample manpower supply in most professional fields has progressed to the point of national concern and action. The unemployment rate in professional and technical occupations in 1971 (2.9 percent) was more than double the rate 2 years before, though still only half the average unemployment rate for all workers. The record college graduating classes of 1970 and 1971 met unprecedented difficulties in obtaining positions in their fields of training, although nearly all were eventually able to find work.

The recent shift from a scarcity of manpower to a scarcity of jobs in most professions was intensified by the general slowdown in business activity and employment during the past 2 years. But the basic reasons for this turnaround in the professional job market go back to the demand and supply factors which created the preceding personnel shortages and the changes which took place concurrently in several of the most important of these factors.

Thus, the demand for engineers and scientists was heavily affected by the buildup in Federal expenditures for the defense and space programs and for research and development activities in these and other fields during the mid 1960's and the subsequent sharp cutbacks in expenditures in all these areas. The contraction in Government research funds also contributed to the recent decrease in demand for new college and university faculty members. Other reasons for this decrease were the slowdown in the previously rapid rise in college enrollments (brought about by both demographic factors and changed Government policies with respect to Selective Service and student aid) and the universities' new and often critical financial difficulties.

In the largest of all professions, elementary and secondary school teaching, the demand for new personnel has dropped even more in the past 2 years. It is now limited, in general, to replacement needs. The growth in the school-age population has stopped, at least temporarily; local school boards tend to be short of funds; and Federal aid to education is rising much less than in the first years of rapid buildup under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

> . . . a strong increase in requirements for scientists and engineers is anticipated, in view of their crucial role in meeting urgent domestic needs.'

The demand for new teachers is expected to remain relatively low during the 1970's (see chart 2), providing opportunities for a much smaller proportion of the rising numbers of college graduates than in past years. This conclusion has serious implications for young women seeking professional careers, since teaching employs about 2 out of every 5 women in professional and related occupations.

In science and engineering, however, demand is expected to increase again with the improvement in general economic conditions and the renewed increase in Federal research and development expenditures expected in fiscal 1973. In the long run, a strong increase in requirements for scientists and engineers is anticipated, in view of their crucial role in meeting urgent domestic needs.

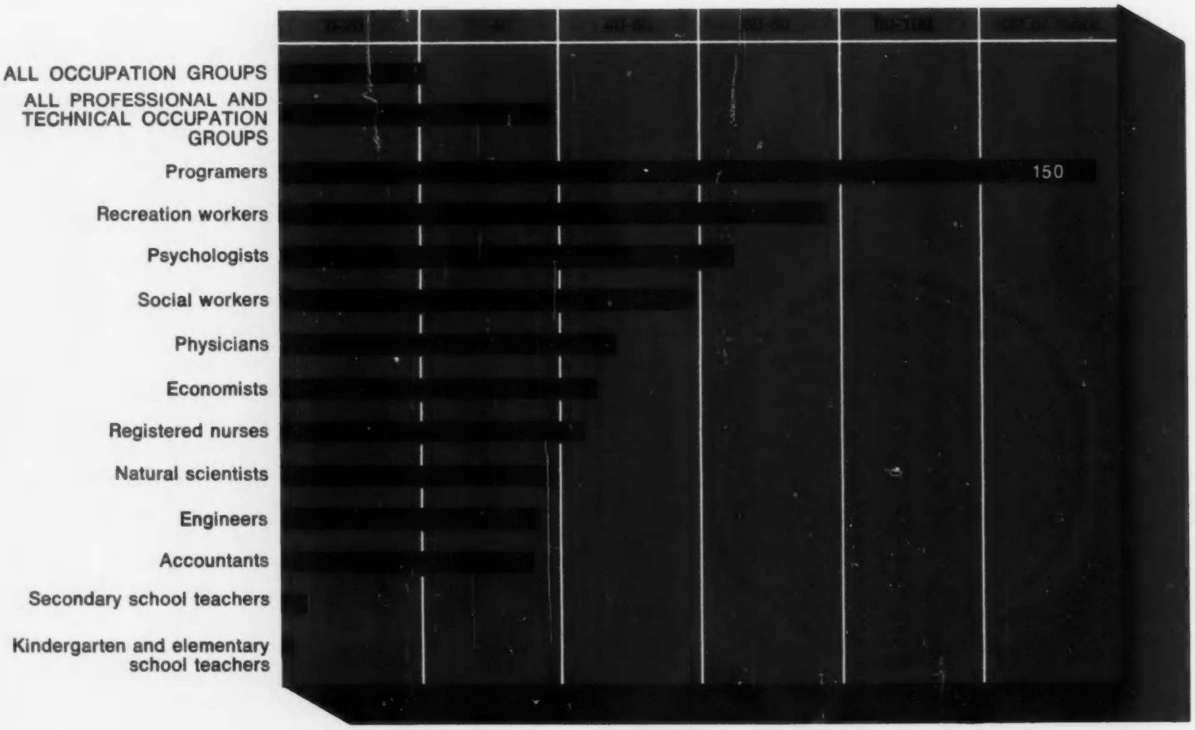
The health professions are the one major area of professional employment with a continuing scarcity of personnel. Requirements for both physicians and nurses are expected to rise further during this decade, but a substantial increase in supply also is anticipated, owing largely to increased Federal assistance to medical and nursing education which is being provided under 1971 legislation.

The maldistribution of physicians, both geographically and among fields of practice, is another problem under attack, through added incentives to practice in underserved areas. In addition, increased employment of allied health personnel is essential to enhance physicians' productivity and meet the health needs of local areas and population groups not now receiving adequate health services. ☐

Chart 2

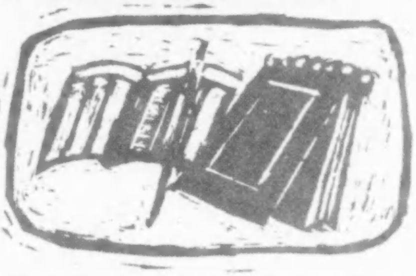
Employment requirements will rise much faster in some professions than others.

Percent growth in selected occupation groups 1970-80



Source: Department of Labor

News & Notes



Eight out of 10 jobs to be filled during the 1970's will be open to people who have not completed 4 years of college, according to Secretary of Labor J. D. Hodgson. "But more job training will be required of young people in the 1970's as industrial processes, technology, and business procedures increase in complexity," he added. The Secretary's comments were based on the new 1972-73 "Occupational Outlook Handbook." The revised and updated 850-page volume, published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), reports on job needs and prospects through the current decade for more than 800 occupations and 30 major industries. The handbook may be purchased for $6.25 from BLS regional offices in Atlanta, Boston, Chicago, Dallas, Kansas City, New York, Philadelphia, and San Francisco. It is also on sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

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The National Urban Coalition has awarded a $35,000 grant to the American Optometric Association for a minority recruitment program. The money, supplemented by Association funds, will be used to recruit minorities for schools and colleges of optometry and to obtain scholarships. In the 1970-71 school year, the number of minority students training for the profession was only 167, or 6 percent of the total.

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Harold O. Buzzell, 40, of Silver Spring, Md., has been appointed Deputy Manpower Administrator. A former vice president of the management consulting firm of Booz, Allen & Hamilton, Buzzell will be the top assistant to Manpower Administrator Paul J. Fasser, Jr. A native of Oakland, Maine, Buzzell graduated from the University of Maine and is a Navy veteran.

* * *

The number of minority apprentices in programs registered with the U.S. Department of Labor has increased by 73 percent in 2½ years. Black, Spanish-speaking, Indian, and Oriental youth comprised 18,977, or 9.8 percent of the 194,543 apprentices on July 1, 1971. This compares with only 10,986 minority apprentices, or 6.6 percent of the total of 166,087 on January 1, 1969.

The Department of Labor has awarded a $3.1 million contract to Deganawidah-Quetzalcoatl University of Davis, Calif., to help prepare California migrant farmworkers for year-round employment. The university is governed by a board of trustees consisting solely of Chicanos and Indians. Spanish-speaking recruiters are expected to bring hundreds of migrants into job skill and remedial education classes at the university.

* * *

State and local governments should take over much of the operation of manpower programs, according to Assistant Secretary of Labor Malcolm R. Lovell, Jr. Speaking at Cornell University, Lovell said that the Federal Government has "consistently overestimated what can be accomplished by close Federal direction." He added that "various types of Federal-State and Federal-local relations have been tried and, it is fair to say, the key issue is no longer whether to decentralize, but how to do so in ways that generate performance." The Federal role, he feels, should be confined to providing money, guidelines, technical assistance, research, and development.

* * *

The United Auto Workers and American Motors have agreed to establish a joint program to combat drug and alcohol abuse among company employees in Milwaukee and Kenosha, Wis.

* * *

Grants totaling $900,000 have been made to 12 universities for manpower research and the education of manpower specialists during fiscal year 1973. These awards extend a program introduced in 1966 to help meet critical shortages of manpower experts.

* * *

Manpower Administrator Paul J. Fasser, Jr., says the Job Corps soon will be putting more emphasis on reading education. The Manpower Administration has awarded a $340,672 contract to the National Reading Center Foundation, Inc., to increase the number of trained volunteer tutors in the Job Corps' reading program. A prototype effort will be established in eight Corps centers by November and will be extended to the remaining 60 centers by the end of next year.

Someplace to Turn

by Phyllis E. Lehmann

Here's a womanpower awareness test. Today's typical woman worker is: (a) a young, single woman, just out of high school or college, who is working until she gets married; (b) an older woman who has opted for a career instead of marriage and motherhood; (c) a woman in her twenties who is married but has no children.

Surprisingly, none of the above choices is correct. The average woman worker today is 39 years old and married. More than likely she has children, the youngest of whom is in school. With at least a high school education and with 20 or more productive years ahead of her, she has time and talent to devote to paid employment or to meaningful volunteer work.

As this profile indicates, married women are a growing resource in the Nation's labor force. Yet many don't know which way to turn when they decide to go to work outside the home. Some have college degrees and professional training, but their skills are outdated. They lack confidence in seeking jobs in fields with which they have lost touch. For many, the demands of raising a family make a full-time job impossible; but challenging part-time work is hard to come by.

These women find that precious little help is available to them in locating jobs to fit both their schedules and their skills. The U.S. Employment Service does not always have the time or resources to devote special attention to the needs of women who want to return to the work force. Often such women find that private employment agencies are not too interested in them because they are difficult to place. Nor do such agencies have the specialized job information that mature women need.

In the mid-1960's, an energetic group of well-educated women faced with these kinds of problems decided to do something about the situation in the Washington, D.C., area. The result was Washington Opportunities for Women (WOW), incorporated in January 1966 as a nonprofit organization. Since then WOW volunteers have contributed some 30,000 hours to researching employment problems of women, preparing lists of job openings, compiling information on volunteer opportunities, and conducting 10,000 interviews.

Month Backlog on Interviews

Today WOW is a daily operation with a paid staff of five and a regular volunteer corps of about 25 whose influence is felt throughout the Washington area and beyond. For 4 years the group has been conducting interviews 4 hours a day, 4 days a week, and there is still a 1-month backlog. The D. C. Manpower Administration gives WOW free office space in a section of its Professional Placement Center and since 1967 has been providing some financial support through annual contracts calling for WOW to receive $8,000 to $12,000 a year to operate an information center. WOW also has conducted some fund drives to help finance its activities.

The story of WOW really began in 1963 with the Seven College Vocational Conference, organized in Washington by a committee of alumnae of seven women's colleges. As a result of the conference, the Professional Placement Center of the District of Columbia Employment Service (now the D.C. Manpower

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Mrs. Lehmann is a frequent contributor to MANPOWER.

Volunteer Group Finds Educated Women Have Their Share of Job Problems

Administration) assigned a staff interviewer to help women return to the labor force in full-time or part-time jobs. Volunteers from local alumnae clubs began working with the placement unit to provide employment services for such women.

In winter 1964-65 some 3,000 Washington area women were surveyed through local college clubs and branches of the American Association of University Women about their job needs and interests. The survey revealed that 75 percent of the respondents were already working or were planning to work in the near future. Of these, 40 percent preferred a part-time job. A surprising 46 percent indicated that they would like vocational counseling, and 76 percent felt that establishing a clearinghouse for part-time job opportunities would be a worthwhile venture.

Following the survey, the D.C. Employment Service donated facilities for an information center and WOW was officially established. About a year later, the group published a book entitled, WASHINGTON OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN: A GUIDE TO PART-TIME WORK AND STUDY FOR THE EDUCATED WOMAN. The result of a cumulative effort by more than 100 women, the book provides general information about jobs and further study in a number of professional fields and gives practical tips on job-hunting. Some 8,000 copies have been sold to women from all over the country.

WOW directors Jane Fleming and Mary Janney say that about half of the women who contact the organization want to get back into the labor force after interrupting their careers to raise a family. They include such women as the lawyer who had not practiced law since her child, now a teenager, was born. After placing her name on file with WOW, she was contacted by a government agency and subsequently hired as a full-time legal assistant.

Others have found challenging part-time work to complement their jobs as wives and mothers. Pamela Dekaban, for example, is a registered nurse who had not worked since her children were born and had not made a serious effort to find a job until she went in for an interview at WOW. As a result of her visit she has been working part time for the past 2 years for the Washington Hearing Society, visiting schools and recreation centers in the city to screen children for hearing problems.

The other half of WOW's applicants are people like Ruth Knight, professional women who need help because they are new in the area or because they want to change fields of employment. Mrs. Knight, whose husband is in the foreign service, has completed her course work for a Ph.D. in history and has written a book. "Every time we come home from an assignment in a foreign country I'm faced with finding a job," she explained. She is currently working on her third WOW job—as a legislative assistant to a congressman.

Christine Nelson, assistant director of WOW and the organization's first paid staffer, noted that the diversity of applicants has increased over the years. "We now see girls in college, those who are just out of college, retired women, and even some men," she said. According to a survey of about 100 applicants taken a year ago, the women who come to WOW have two chief problems: Difficulty with child care arrangements and discrimination in the job market.

"It seems to reflect the changing times," said Mrs. Janney, "that more women now realize that discrimination is a factor in their employment problems and are willing to cite it as a problem. Many women are also at a disadvantage because they must hold down two jobs—the one at home in addition to the one outside."

WOW's directors hasten to point out that their organization is not a placement service, and therefore they cannot talk in terms of how many women have been "placed." WOW provides counseling and information for women job-seekers who need all kinds of help, ranging from a gentle prod, to advice on child care arrangements, to further training and education. It is up to the women themselves, armed with encouragement and specific information, to follow up on their own. "We can't really define what is a success for us," Mrs. Nelson says. "A woman might find a job through our referrals, through some other kind of information she gets here, or just because we gave her the courage to go out and get a job."

Others Sparked Her Interest

Courage was the key for Nancy Rigby, a favorite WOW success story. A former nursery school and elementary school teacher, she came to WOW as a volunteer and was concluding a 9-month research project on day care for the organization when she learned that the National Education Association (NEA) was looking for someone to serve as a teaching director and administrative officer for its new demonstration day care center.

"I had no intention of taking a full-time job," she recalled, "but I went for an interview, ended up taking the job, and am delighted I did." In addition to her NEA job, Mrs. Rigby, the mother of three youngsters, is studying for her master's degree in early childhood education at Catholic University.

Mrs. Rigby credits the other women at WOW with sparking her interest in day care. "I certainly can't say I had the guts to tackle a new field myself," she said. "They kept calling me their day care expert and I kept hiding behind the books I was reading to try to learn about day care. It was their encouragement that made the difference."

The hub of the WOW operation is the Information Center, a large, pleasant room that invites browsers. A bulletin board the length of one wall carries clippings and pamphlets on volunteer work, how to get a job with the Government, and the problems of women workers. A budding library boasts such diverse volumes as the HANDBOOK ON WOMEN WORKERS, published by the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor, and feminist Kate Millett's SEXUAL POLITICS. Shelves contain loose-leaf binders with page after page of job openings and opportunities for volunteer work in fields ranging from computer science to social work. Listings obtained through the District of Columbia Manpower Administration's Job Bank also are available at the center.

WOW's own job listings are developed by volunteers who watch the newspapers for items about new programs that have been funded or about new companies or businesses that have moved into the area. Volunteers then visit the employers to find out about job possibilities. A number of employers, who have learned about the organization's activities or who have been pleased with employees referred by WOW, regularly keep in touch about job openings. Current openings are posted on a bulletin board in the WOW staff office for the benefit of interviewers who will be talking with applicants.

The center receives about 40 calls a day from women who want interviews, women who can be referred elsewhere for further education or training, and from employers, college representatives, and others who simply want information about WOW's efforts. Some 20 volunteers a week—each works about 1 day a week—come to the headquarters to interview applicants and handle other chores from 10 a.m. to 2 p.m. Monday through Thursday. At the end of the day the vol-

Labor Dept.
photos by
Harrison Allen

unteers assemble with a head interviewer and one or more of the WOW directors to discuss the day's new applicants (usually 6 to 12), possible jobs for each, and the proper category under which to file her card and resume for future reference.

After an applicant has been interviewed she is welcome to return as often as she likes to check on job listings or to look over other informational materials. Women whose names are on file may be contacted by WOW or directly by employers when jobs for which they qualify open up. A separate roster, called the talent bank, is maintained for women with exceptionally high qualifications, usually a master's degree or equivalent experience. Some 400 names are currently in the talent bank.

Profiles of Applicants

The variety of backgrounds and interests of WOW applicants is typified by the seven women who visited the center for interviews 1 day recently:

- A middle-aged woman with a bachlor's degree in geology who left her last job 12 years ago. Because she has children she was seeking a part-time job in her field. Her name was placed in the talent bank.
- A recent college graduate with a bachelor's in anthropology who had worked as an administrative assistant because she was convinced she needed a master's degree to get anywhere in her field. She wanted a more challenging job.
- A Catholic nun who was recruiting jobs for a whole group of sisters, aged 50 to 65, who had been teaching elementary school for some years and who were looking for a change—perhaps work in educational research, in community service, or in programs for the elderly.
- A young political science Ph.D. with a specialty in Chinese affairs who was unhappy with her Government research job and was seeking work that would give her more contact with people. Her name also was placed in the talent bank.
- A bachelor of arts graduate who had not held paid employment for 5 years but had done volunteer work in art and community affairs. Mainly seeking direction, she was hoping to find "interesting"

Keeping busy is not one of Nancy Rigby's problems at the day-care center she runs for the National Education Association. Work as a WOW volunteer sparked her interest in day care and led to the job with NEA.

Someplace to Turn
continued

Betty Houston (left) discusses job openings with a WOW interviewer. Mrs. Houston did get a job through WOW, but before she was placed she served briefly as a volunteer interviewer herself.

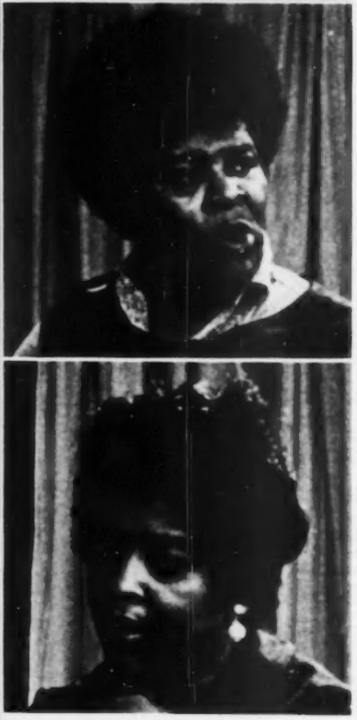
An applicant scans job openings and opportunities for volunteer work compiled by WOW.

Rita Penn: "Montgomery County was looking for people with volunteer experience and my experience with WOW was of a much more professional nature than baking cookies."

A visit to WOW led former nurse Pamela Dekaban to a part-time job with the Washington Hearing Society screening children for hearing problems.

WOW-New Careers trainees take a break in their pschodrama class to work out the assignment of roles. The class is under the direction of Eugene Cole (right).

Interviewer Deenie Bernstein (right) talks with an applicant about her resume.



Using the psychodrama technique, Frances Cromartie (center above) and Elizabeth Dantzler (above) take the roles in a portrayal of a mental patient's reaction to an interview by a newly assigned social worker. Both are training to be social service aides under the WOW-New Careers Program.

part-time or volunteer work that might lead to a full-time paid job in art, writing, teaching, or health or community service.

- An editor, dissatisfied with her job, who wanted to enter a new field, such as health or community service.
- A young woman getting her master's in linguistics who wanted a job that would combine that specialty with another area, such as writing.

In each case, the applicant was given a list of several places to call, either to follow up on specific jobs or to inquire generally about opportunities for a person with her qualifications and experience.

At WOW, volunteer work is considered an important steppingstone to paid employment, especially for women who want to enter a new career. One of the group's most significant accomplishments, the directors believe, was working with the U.S. Civil Service Commission to accredit professional-level volunteer work as job experience. A number of women have moved from WOW volunteer work directly into paid jobs in which the volunteer concept plays an important role.

Volunteer Work Pays Off

Rita Penn, a former social worker and, more recently, a WOW interviewer, is now employed as coordinator of volunteers for schools in Montgomery County, Md., a Washington suburb. She sets up programs under which volunteer aides work side by side with teachers in elementary school classrooms. "Montgomery County was looking for people with volunteer experience," Mrs. Penn said, "and my experience with WOW was of a much more professional nature than baking cookies."

Isolde Weinberg, who had worked with WOW since its inception, was hired 2 years ago as a part-time writer-editor-researcher in the clearinghouse of the National Center for Voluntary Action—a national source of information about volunteer work going on in communities across the country. She said that three of the six staff members at the clearinghouse obtained their jobs through WOW and that her employer had found WOW a ready source of qualified people who have had professional volunteer experience.

Not satisfied to serve only as a job counseling, information, and referral organization, WOW has become involved in a variety of other programs. In 1969 WOW sponsored an information center funded by the U.S. Office of Education to help parents find needed educational programs and services, such as clinics, recreation facilities, tutoring, and special schools, for their handicapped children. One of the first accomplishments of the center was preparation of a comprehensive directory of services in the Washington area for children who have mental, emotional, physical, and learning handicaps. The center is now a permanent organization, independent of WOW.

Part-Time Teachers Trained

WOW entered the realm of job training in 1967 with a demonstration program to train part-time teachers, developed in cooperation with Trinity College in Washington and the District of Columbia public schools. WOW recruited women, and a few men, who were interested in teaching in inner-city schools but for various reasons could not teach full time. The trainees gained credits toward a master's degree in teaching at Trinity while they received in-service training as part-time teachers in the city's elementary and secondary schools.

After 3 years the program was terminated because the teacher shortage had been alleviated, and school officials decided that no more part-time teachers could be hired. Of the 45 people trained in the program, most are still involved in education as teachers, tutors, school librarians, and remedial specialists. WOW directors belive the program had an important impact in acquainting Trinity College officials with the special problems of women who want to attain degrees while raising families and in leading the school to offer flexible study arrangements for students who require them.

Most of WOW's efforts have concentrated on the middle class woman. However, in September 1970, a new program was launched to provide better education and job opportunities for poverty level residents of Washington. Under the WOW-New Careers Program, funded by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration, 44 poorly educated and unskilled women and men are being trained as social service aides at St. Elizabeth's (Mental) Hospital and the D.C. Narcotics Treatment Administration.

In addition to receiving on-the-job training, the enrollees are studying toward 2-year Associate of Arts degrees at Washington's Federal City College. Those who do not have high school diplomas are tutored for the high school equivalency test. Two volunteer counselor aides, recruited through the WOW Information Center, assist in counseling and training the New Careerists.

The trainees, most of whom had worked in such unskilled jobs as clerks and domestics, were recruited through the Washington Concentrated Employment Program and the Narcotics Treatment Administration. Eight of the nine trainees who are working with drug addicts at the Narcotics Treatment Administration are themselves addicts currently on methadone maintenance. After they complete the 2-year program, the trainees will be hired as employees of the Federal Government with an opportunity to advance as they gain additional experience. As social service aides, they will continue to assist social workers in dealing with patients and assume some of the clerical duties that previously burdened the professionals.

Why did WOW get involved in training the poor? "We are concerned with all women," codirector Jane Fleming explained. "We had been successful with the Trinity College teaching project, so the New Careers Program was just another step."

As for the future, WOW directors dream of a complete women's center—a kind of super WOW facility—that could serve many more Washington area women and provide a wider range of information and services. Because they view their work as supplementing that of the employment service and consider their close association with it as a logical relationship, they would like to see women's centers attached to employment service offices across the country. Although WOW is still thought to be unique, publicity about its work has brought in over 300 inquiries from throughout the United States and as far away as Thailand and Taiwan. Many correspondents seek information about how to set up similar operations in their own areas.

Similarity of Needs Cited

Undoubtedly, a blossoming of such organizations nationwide would be welcomed by a large number of the country's 104 million women. In the last 50 years, the profile of the average woman worker has changed dramatically from a young, single woman to a married woman approaching middle age.

According to the Labor Department's Women's Bureau, "The return of mature women to the labor force has been a vital factor in the tremendous increase in the number of women workers in recent years—in 1970 half of all women 35 to 64 years of age were in the labor force, as compared with 1 out of 4 in 1940." It was these women and their special needs that sparked creation of Washington Opportunities for Women, and WOW's directors have found that women's employment problems—discrimination, the need for child care, outdated skills, limited part-time jobs—transcend education and income.

As codirector Mary Janney said, "During our years of operation, we've been most struck by one thing: The similarity of job needs among women, whether they're poverty level school dropouts or Ph.D.'s." □

Words & Figures

Women in Manpower Programs

The proportion of women enrolled in federally funded manpower programs traditionally has been somewhat higher than their participation in the labor force. In the first year of operation of the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) and the Area Redevelopment Act, women comprised 36 percent of the enrollees while accounting for only 34 percent of the civilian labor force. By fiscal year 1971, women made up 39 percent of the labor force while their enrollment in manpower programs swelled to 43 percent.

This increase in women's share of manpower training is partly attributable to the emphasis on job training for the poor and disadvantaged brought about by antipoverty programs. The poverty rate of families headed by women is three to four times greater than for families whose main breadwinner is a man.

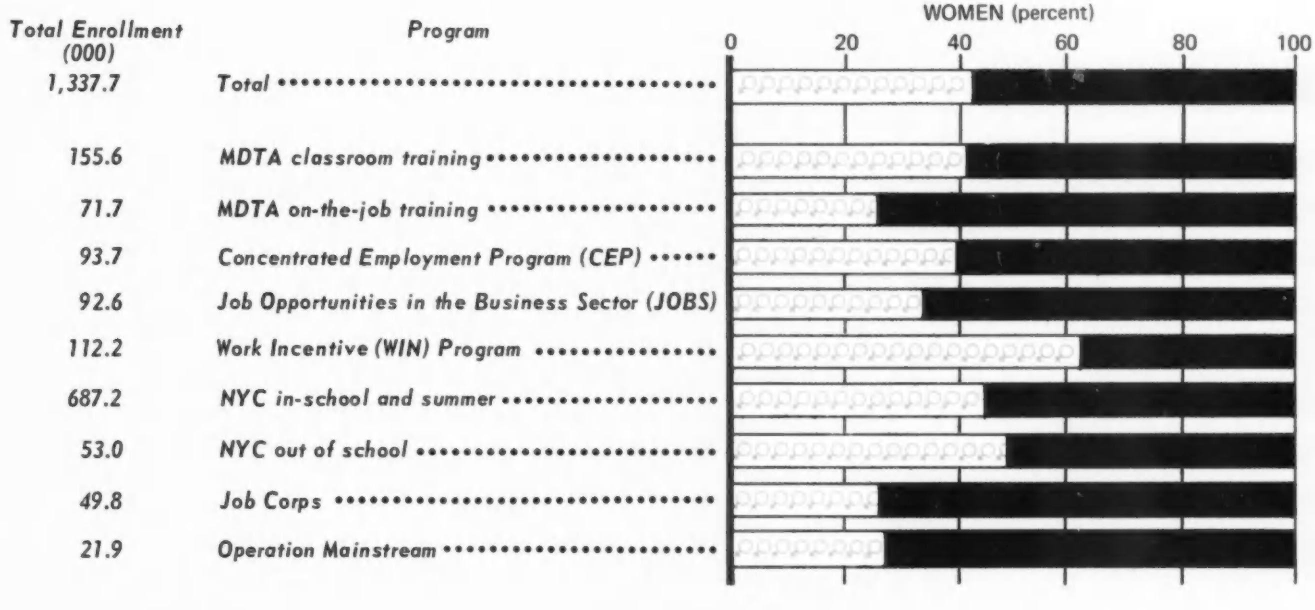
The proportion of women varies markedly among manpower programs. In the Work Incentive (WIN) Program, women accounted in fiscal 1971 for nearly two-thirds of all enrollments. WIN helps welfare clients receiving payments under the Aid for Families with Dependent Children Program to become self-supporting. In Job Corps, which trains severely disadvantaged high school dropouts, the enrollment of women amounted to 13,000, or 26 percent of the total.

In terms of sheer numbers, more women were enrolled in the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC), primarily a work experience program, than in any other manpower program during fiscal 1971. NYC is aimed at youth who have dropped out, or are in danger of dropping out, of high school.

The NYC in-school and summer programs give work experience and pay to poor high school students to deter them from leaving school for financial reasons. Young women accounted for 45 percent of the more than 687,000 in-school and summer enrollees during fiscal 1971.

The NYC out-of-school component helps young dropouts acquire the work habits, remedial education, and attitudes necessary for holding a job. Nearly half the 53,000 enrollees in fiscal 1971 were female.

Participation of Women in Selected Manpower Programs, Fiscal Year 1971



Experiences of New Orleans Contractors Studied for Clues on Developing Minority Entrepreneurs

Blacks in the Building Business

In New Orleans, most black general contractors get the bulk of their business from white customers. Typically, the contractors are small businessmen who draw on their years of experience in the building trades as craftsmen and as contractors. Most of them build one- or two-family houses or do alterations and repairs.

In general, they operate their business firms from their homes and have few employees; they had a median gross income of only $25,000 in 1969. With suitable help, a sizable number of these general contractors could be expected to build on a larger scale and to gross upwards of $100,000 a year.

These are among the findings in research funded by the Manpower Administration to raise blacks' social and economic status by turning up detailed information on one group of black businessmen, their problems, and their potential. The study, *Black Construction Contractors in New Orleans,* was directed by Theresa R. Shapiro of the Louisiana State University in New Orleans.[1]

Two kinds of contractors were interviewed in 1970 for the study—43 were doing general contracting and 145 were specialty contractors working at a trade such as plumbing, bricklaying, roofing, and the like. Of the two groups, the general contractors were in a stronger position. They had more schooling, more often had completed apprenticeships, and had been in business longer. During the previous year, their median gross income was more than two and a half times that of the specialty contractors.

Still, a number of the general contractors had a precarious hold on the business. A third received more than half their gross income from repairs and alterations rather than from new construction; nearly as many found it necessary to supplement their income by doing some carpentry or other specialty contracting on the side. At the seasonal peak of construction in 1969, about 15 percent of the general contractors and 32 percent of the specialty contractors had no employees.

Indicative of the firms' scale of operations is their gross income in the year prior to the survey. Among general contractors, more than a quarter grossed under $10,000 in 1969; more than three-fifths grossed under $50,000. The median gross income of $25,000 for these contractors was in marked contrast to the median of $9,600 for specialty contractors. More than 90 percent of the latter group grossed less than $50,000—and half grossed under $10,000.

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[1] ***Black Construction Contractors in New Orleans*** **is available from the National Technical Information Service, Operations Division, Springfield, Va. 22151 for $3.00 for a paper copy and 95 cents for microfiche. Specify accession number PB 208120.**

The two contractor groups possess a large body of experience in construction. Roughly a third of the men worked for more than 15 years in a craft before becoming contractors. Nearly three-fourths of the general contractors and nearly three-fifths of the specialty contractors had put in more than 10 years in these businesses.

Generally, the contractors had learned their skills informally. A third learned from relatives who were construction craftsmen—fathers, grandfathers, uncles, or brothers. More than a third said they learned a trade "on the job."

Only 12 percent of the contractors completed apprenticeship training. Dr. Shapiro notes that a nationwide sample survey made for the Manpower Administration in 1963 found that 39 percent of all construction craftsmen (the survey was not limited to contractors) served part or all of an apprenticeship. One indication of the value of apprenticeship training is that more New Orleans black general contractors (the higher income group) than specialty contractors completed apprenticeships—20 percent compared with 9 percent.

As for other training and experience, a small number of contractors were trade school graduates. Most of these were electricians or plumbers, Dr. Shapiro says, who had been kept out of apprenticeships because they were black. Only three contractors reported prior experience as construction field supervisors. Commenting on this finding, a white trade association official said blacks are barred from advancing to field supervisor, which accounts for some going into contracting. Following such a course may have meant that some of them went into business without experience in dealing with a variety of trades, scheduling work and the arrival of materials, and other supervisory skills that became important to them once they were on their own. Also, none of the contractors mentioned having experience as an estimator in earlier years.

A number had some past experience as owners of retail stores or other enterprises. This proved valuable either because it trained them in business methods or because it helped them establish credit, Dr. Shapiro says. In at least one case, determination, experience, and financing all worked together, she says. One of the contractors had been a fruit peddler and a construction craftsman and was running a bar and grill when he had a chance to buy some land. He got credit from a bank to make the purchase, then built his first two houses.

But the contractor with a bank loan at the start of his career was an exception. Only two general contractors set up shop with such loans, and none had credit from other financial institutions. Dr. Shapiro found that even informal types of credit apparently were not available. "Loans from friends and relatives, which have helped launch many a small businessman, were also entirely lacking, illustrating a major obstacle to the development of black business: The lack of capital in the black community."

Loan Difficulties Recounted

Most initial financing for the general contractors came from personal savings. A few were helped by customers advancing funds for their houses. When the general contractors were asked to name their greatest single business problem, 35 percent said it was getting bank loans or other forms of financing. More than half the general contractors had never received a bank loan during their business careers and 70 percent reported that their firm currently served as its own principal source of funds.

It is characteristic of small business to use little external financing, Dr. Shapiro points out, citing a 1954 U.S. Department of Commerce survey. But among the firms in this survey which did use bank credit, more than half of the loans received were $10,000 and over. Of the New Orleans black general contractors who had received a bank loan, 58 percent said the largest loan obtained was under $5,000.

A quarter of the general contractors said that at some time or other they had applied for a bank loan but been refused. The most common reason given for refusal was inadequate security. A couple of the contractors believed they were rejected because they were black. One reported that the bank he applied to told him "the most they could lend a Negro was $13,000."

Twenty-eight percent had never applied for bank loans. Most of this group said their firms were too small to require such credit. Dr. Shapiro reports that one contractor who had a sizable business pointed out that the interest he would have to pay on a bank loan would "eat up" his profits. "It may well be that the real problem of the black contractor is that he must operate with very slim profit margins if he is to compete successfully for white customers," Dr. Shapiro says.

Ninety percent of the general contractors said they could get credit from suppliers, but only a few had more than 30 days to pay their bills. "According to the secretary of the Home Builders Association, the customary term of payment is 60 to 90 days," Dr. Shapiro says. "Only four contractors reported such terms from their own experience."

Another troublesome area for some black contractors is obtaining performance bonds. Although it is estimated that not more than 20 percent of all private building is carried out under such bonds, bonding is commonly required for publicly financed building, which makes up from a fifth to a third of all construction. Without

bonding, builders can be closed off from the public construction market where contractors are chosen through open, competitive bids.

However, only 14 percent of the black contractors in New Orleans said bonding was their greatest single problem. This was not surprising since 63 percent of them had never sought nor received a performance bond. "The kind of construction they understand and engage in, building and repairing one- and two-family houses for private customers, does not require bonds," Dr. Shapiro says. "For the contractor who felt he could handle bigger jobs and who might have been able to secure such work, the well-known difficulties Negroes have in securing bonds did act as a brake. He could not bid for projects he felt able to carry out, or he failed to obtain contracts because he could not furnish a bond. A third of the general contractors reported having lost bids in 1967-69 because they could not secure a bond." Others wanted to bid but refrained because bonding was required.

Few Get Public Contracts

Contracts with a government agency were even less frequent than bonds—only 12 percent of the contractors said they had engaged in public construction in the 3 years prior to the survey.

Problems revolving around management expertise were not mentioned by the contractors except indirectly and in response to questions about what they would like to learn in order to run their businesses better. Among general contractors, 75 percent stated needs of some kind, mostly in the areas of business management, estimating, and bookkeeping.

Some observers believe that lack of management skills actually is the minority businessman's greatest problem, Dr. Shapiro says. She quotes an American Insurance Association spokesman as saying:

"Absolute candor compels us to point out that the chief and recurring difficulty which most minority group contractors encounter in applying for surety bonds arises from their market deficiencies in experience, management, and other skills in running construction jobs of more than limited scope. While very many also lack working capital to a certain degree, with the availability of financing through such government sources as the Small Business Administration, coupled with various lending techniques, such financial weakness is often secondary to lack of expertise."

The black contractors' replies to survey questions appear to have a somewhat different emphasis, which was expressed in testimony by the National Business League, a black businessmen's association, before the Senate Committee on Small Business. The League representative stated: "Most of our members will say that their chief problem is a lack of capital. The experts say it is a lack of management ability. I know that it is both."

When the black specialty contractors in New Orleans were asked to nominate their greatest single problem, a quarter said it was finding workmen and another quarter said it was finding customers. Dr. Shapiro sums up what, in her opinion, made these needs so prevalent: "In a nutshell, there are too many (specialty contractors), particularly in the predominantly black trades, relative to the demand, and this means both that there is a shortage of customers and that prices must be kept low if any customers are to be captured. With low prices, the black specialty contractor cannot afford to pay a decent wage so that he is also at a disadvantage in the labor market."

Yet few of these contractors complained about having trouble making a living. One exception was the man who said, "I've answered all your questions. Now I would like to ask you one. Will you please tell me how a man can work hard and steadily 50 weeks a year and earn only $3,000?"

Some of the men doing specialty contracting apparently would be better off working as craftsmen, particularly those who were subcontractors to subcontractors. Roofing subcontractors, for example, were commonly using other subcontractors instead of employees to do the work. It was evident to the researchers that firms holding prime subcontracts regarded the blacks as piece workers. The head of one such firm said, "Calling them subcontractors just saves you the trouble of paying their Social Security."

In the electrical and plumbing trades, the specialty contractors had more customers than they could service and were maintaining "happy financial arrangements" with their suppliers. Their main problem was the lack of trained assistants.

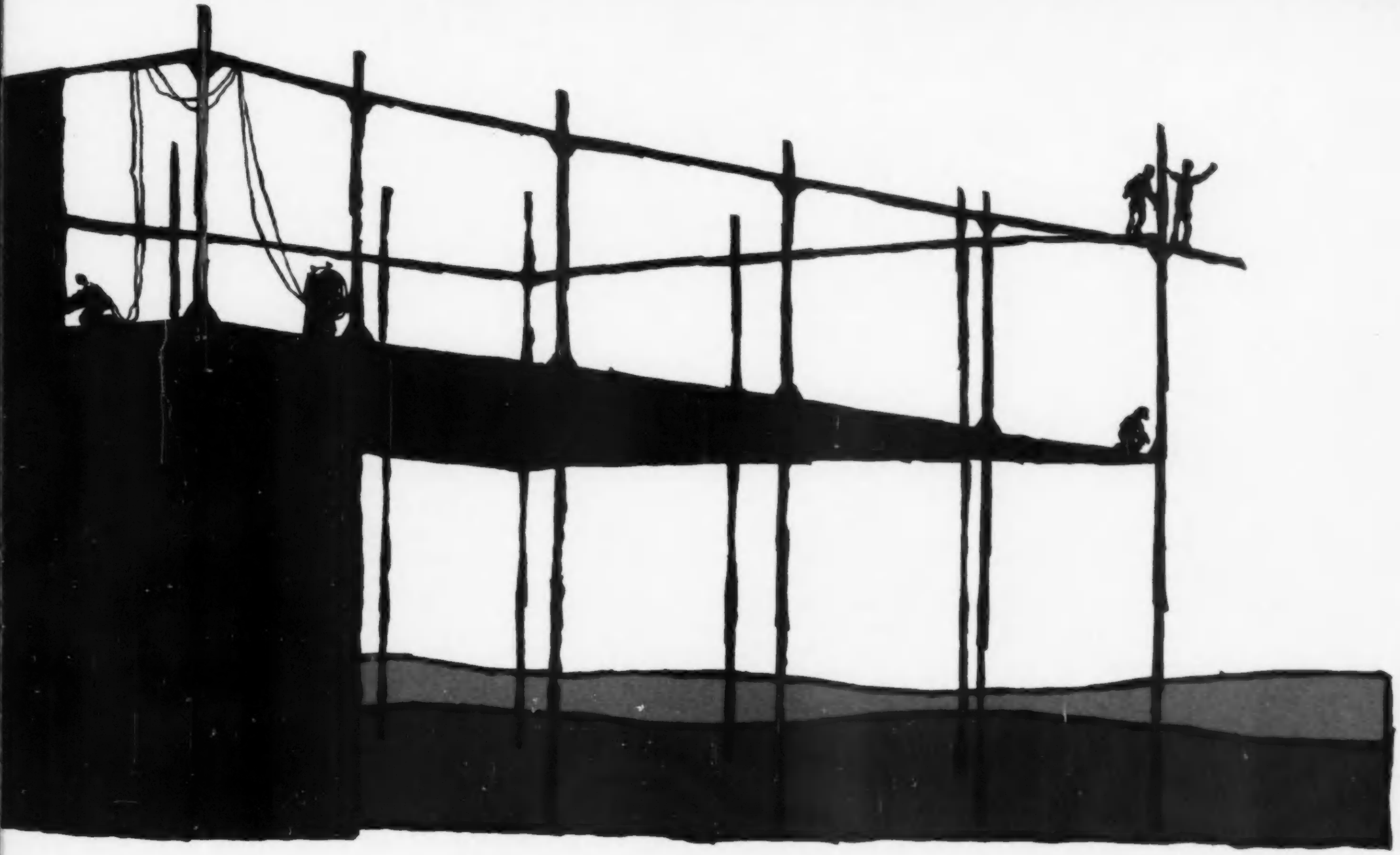
Although a high proportion of New Orleans' construction craftsmen are black—certain trades such as plastering are known as "black trades"—blacks have a hard time getting training and licensed as plumbers or electricians. As a result, researchers could find only eight blacks licensed in these trades in the entire metropolitan area. They also found a number of men operating without licenses.

Self-Help Groups Formed

What can be done to improve the lot of the black entrepreneur in the building business?

A great many cities, including New York, Los Angeles, Detroit, Kansas City, and Boston, now have minority contractors' associations which provide both financial assistance and technical expertise. One of the earliest was set up in Oakland, Calif., in 1967 with a demonstration grant from the Ford Foundation.

In New Orleans, the Amalgamated Builders and Contractors of Louisiana (ABCOL) was formed in 1969 by the New Orleans Interracial Council for Business Opportunity. The following year it obtained grants to enable it to provide technical aid and working capital to association members. The grants came from



the Federal Government through the Model Cities program and from the Minority Contractors' Assistance Project (MCAP) in Washington, D.C., an official of MCAP reports. MCAP is a national nonprofit corporation developed by the National Urban Coalition and funded by the Ford Foundation and the U.S. Department of Commerce to assist local builders' associations such as ABCOL in cities across the Nation.

ABCOL emphasizes the development of subcontractors into general contractors and expansion of the general contractors' scale of operations. The association searches out contracts on which its members are equipped to bid, helps members prepare bids and applications for bank loans, and instructs them in estimating, bookkeeping, safety regulations, and government contract procurement. ABCOL also gets loans for member contractors who have jobs in hand which the association staff considers feasible. Initially, it limited loans to $5,000 for each undertaking, an amount deemed adequate to carry a construction project of $100,000 until the time that the contractor begins receiving payments from the owner. MCAP reports that this year it made available a $250,000 letter of credit for ABCOL's use. Now ABCOL can refer contractors for much larger loans.

In addition, ABCOL arranges 60- to 90-day credit with suppliers and has worked out an agreement with an insurance company to provide bonding, though at high risk rates.

Most of the potential for development among black contractors in New Orleans is in the general contractors' group, Dr. Shapiro says. The chief problems in this group are financial and lend themselves to ABCOL assistance. Moreover, these contractors are far better educated than those doing specialty work—48 percent of them have gone to college or have at least a high school diploma, while only 25 percent of the specialty contractors had this much education and nearly half had less than 9 years of school.

About two-fifths of the general contractors seem to have potential for further development, Dr. Shapiro concludes. These were men under 55 who had at least a high school education and either had been refused bank credit or had failed to get contracts because they could not get performance bonding. They may be able to advance from remodeling homes to doing new construction or from building one- and two-family houses to erecting large groups of homes and more complicated structures.

A fifth of the specialty contractors appear to have development potential. They were under 55, had a high school education or better, and had lost contracts because they could not finance their payrolls. With assistance, some may be able to move into general contracting.

For those specialty contractors who are at the bottom of the heap in income, Dr. Shapiro suggests that what is "possibly nothing more than a convenient fiction" be dispensed with and that they change their status from entrepreneur to employee. At least they would get Social Security coverage. "It is true that (such coverage) extends to the self-employed, but . . . at higher rates than if the same people contributed to Social Security as employees," she notes. "Very likely, however, a sizable number of self-employed black construction workers do . . . not know about it or . . . are reluctant to reduce their already slim earnings."

As for the electrical and plumbing specialty contractors, whose greatest need was for trained assistants, she says that the problem can be solved only by improved institutional arrangements for training blacks in those trades in New Orleans. ☐

Rena Hill is a designing woman who freely admits, "I like to make people stop and stare." Not at herself necessarily, but at the beautiful clothes she designs —and makes—and models.

The Job Corps graduate is not yet ready for the final step—selling her fashions. That will come after she graduates from the Minneapolis College of Art and Design, where she has just completed her freshman year.

Few who know her doubt that she will make it. Her talent and her will to move ahead have led her in 5 years from a poor family of 10 children in Ocean Springs, Miss., through the Job Corps, a clerical job with the phone company, into enrollment at the Minneapolis school.

Her passion for clothes began at the age of 11 when she started sewing and blossomed at 15 into designing. "No one got me interested," she said. "It was just in me and came out."

It might never have amounted to anything in her hometown. But in May 1967, she entered the Job Corps Center for Women at Omaha, a 20-year-old 11th grade dropout.

At first, her good-looking clothes complicated her life. The other young women couldn't afford nice things and didn't have her talent with needle, fabric, and thread. They were jealous, she was homesick, and the first 6 months were a misery. But she came to like Job Corps, stayed 2 years, mastered commercial skills such as bookkeeping and typing, got her high school equivalency certificate, and worked at fashions in her spare time on one of the Center's 15 sewing machines.

After graduation in the spring of 1969 she went to Kansas City and began job-hunting. A guard in a Federal office building told her about Women in Community Service (WICS), a largely volunteer organization that is funded by the Manpower Administration to help young women after they leave Job Corps.

WICS found her a job as a clerk. Though she stuck with it for 2 years, her passion was still fashion design. "I'm always undressing people, just in my imagination, and putting something else on them. It's just part of me to browse through stores and magazines, thinking how much better I can make women look with my own creations."

She appealed to WICS again for help and the volunteers came through. They raised more than $2,000 for a scholarship fund from such organizations as Church Women United and the National Council of Jewish Women. An expert from the Kansas City Institute of Art helped her prepare an entry portfolio and WICS helped her apply to various art schools.

She was accepted by three and chose Minneapolis. WICS and the school worked out the financial arrangements, which included a good deal of help from various federally funded education programs for students without money.

"Don't ask me about my grades," Miss Hill laughs. "Just say I'm doing fair. I would like to say excellent but it's not true."

"She's doing fine and she's a positive force in class, in both discussion and participation," says Robert Schimke, one of her instructors. "Her approach to design is interesting. She uses herself as a model. She designs everything for herself. And she came up with a good concept in class the other day. She said the fabric should dictate what a fashion is used for, not the design."

"You can take an exotic design and make the outfit of cotton and wear it to the supermarket," explained Miss Hill. "But if the same design were made of silk or brocade, you couldn't wear it to the store but would keep it for a dance or cocktail party."

Miss Hill already has shown her creations twice at the college. For a classroom project at the end of her first semester she designed, made, and modeled five outfits. The showing had all the trappings, including a narration, background stereo music, and the presence of the college president, whom Miss Hill invited. She had a much wider audience when she designed, made, and modeled four outfits for a fashion show that was part of the ground-breaking ceremonies for a new college building.

At 5-foot-6, with a 36-24-36 figure, Miss Hill models her designs quite effectively. She was chosen Miss Black Twin Cities in January and soon will be competing for Miss Black Minnesota.

In the immediate future, Miss Hill wants to complete the next 3 years at Minneapolis for her Bachelor's degree in fine arts. The school and WICS in Kansas City are working together to make this possible. Beyond that she wants to study in Paris and then "have a beautiful boutique—make that a string of boutiques." ☐

WIN Workers: The

Work supervisors for employers who hire welfare recipients under the Work Incentive (WIN) Program rate attitude and willingness to follow company rules more important than competent job performance.

That is one of the major findings of the Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., of Washington, D.C., after a Manpower Administration-funded study of 280 employers of WIN enrollees in 14 communities around the country.

"Job performance—the task an employee gets paid for carrying out—is distinctly secondary in importance for the supervisors in our sample," the study concludes. "It appears that supervisors are much more likely to fire an employee because he deviated from work rules or evidenced improper attitudes than because he was unable to perform his job adequately. More than half the supervisors interviewed (55 percent) said they thought the main reason for dismissing an employee should be deviation from work rules or improper attitudes; only 30 percent felt that job performance should be the main reason."

The larger an employer is the more apt he is to stress behavior over job performance. Among employers with more than 2,500 workers, only 15 percent of the supervisors said poor job performance should be the prime reason for firing an employee while 80 percent stressed attitudes and work rules.

Under WIN, which is administered by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration, people receiving welfare under the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) program are given job training and supportive services to help them qualify for and obtain permanent jobs. Most placements are made by the State employment service.

The Bureau of Social Science Research selected at random 280 employers of WIN enrollees. Then one WIN employee was selected at random from each employer, and his or her immediate supervisor and the owner or personnel manager of the employing establishment were interviewed. Plans calling for interviews with the WIN workers themselves were abandoned because many of them did not want their former welfare status known to their coworkers or immediate supervisors.

Table 1

Types of Jobs Held by WIN Participants

	Study Subjects	
Job Classification	Number	Percent
Professional, technical, managerial official, and kindred	5	2
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred	13	5
Operatives and kindred	49	18
Clerical and kindred	90	33
Sales and kindred	6	2
Protective service workers	2	1
Service workers public	59	21
Service workers personal	11	4
Laborers	42	15
Total	277	101

The Bureau found that "a large number of employer representatives did not know they had WIN workers on their payrolls and practically none of the supervisors knew that any of the workers in his unit was a WIN worker." To continue to protect the employees' privacy, interviewers told the supervisors that the WIN workers were products of an employment service training program.

The largest group of WIN workers—one-third—held clerical jobs. Substantial numbers also worked in service jobs and as operatives and laborers (see table 1). The overwhelming majority held full-time permanent positions and most had been on the job for more than 6 months. Their median wage was $2.37 an hour.

WIN participants received generally favorable evaluations. According to the report, supervisors rated 74 percent of the former welfare recipients "either equal to or better than regular workers" in job performance, promptness, attendance, and coworker relations.

Most firms regard disadvantaged employees like anyone else, the study noted. Only 16 percent "viewed their WIN employees as different from other employees because of poverty, poor education, or lack of other kinds of opportunities, and almost none was aware of any personal problems that differentiated WIN employees from other workers."

Although poor attendance was the most frequently cited shortcoming of WIN participants, only 16 percent of all supervisors rated them below average in this category; only 10 percent ranked them below average in job performance.

Generally, such characteristics as age, sex, race, education, length of time on job up to a year, or how the person obtained the job were not "significantly related" to the performance of WIN workers as assessed by their supervisors. Workers who had been employed more than a year were generally rated better, "probably because they were more experienced, well integrated, and better

Employer's View

known by their supervisors," the report says.

Of the 280 employers of WIN participants surveyed, 66 percent were private businesses, 13 percent were private institutions such as hospitals, schools, and clinics, and the rest were public employers.

The hiring qualifications required by these employers (see table 2) tended to vary based on a number of factors, including size and type of organization. Large employers, for example, were more likely to require prospective workers to pass a test, but they were less insistent on such items as a high school diploma, ability to read and write, personal appearance, and training. The report further noted that while the Federal Government "is remarkably lenient" in hiring people without a high school education or training, "on the whole, the private sector is more lenient than the public regarding references and tests."

Other than the ability to read and write, the qualification most often demanded by employers was good personal appearance. It was required by 75 percent of the employers compared with 50 percent who asked for job references and 26 percent who required general work experience.

The study suggests that requirements such as references, experience, and personal appearance often are not related to the job but are used to screen out people generally deemed undesirable. It notes, for instance, that about 9 out of 10 employers in contract construction require a good personal appearance.

To gain some insight into the worker's viewpoint, the researchers interviewed 255 former WIN participants who had left the first job held after WIN enrollment.

The great majority of former employees had worked before enrolling in WIN. More than 3 of 4 had held at least one job. And of these, 61 percent had held at least one job for more than a year. "Considering some of the assumptions about welfare recipients, they showed a surprisingly stable pattern of employment," says the report.

Of the former WIN participants, half were unemployed at the time of the study. Seventy-seven percent of the unemployed said they would prefer to work but about half did not like the jobs WIN was finding for them. One 37-year-old male respondent was quoted as saying: "They have nothing to offer me in the way of a job that will afford me a living wage. What can $2 an hour give my family?"

Table 2

Qualifications Required by Employers of WIN Participants By Size of Employing Organization

Number of employees	Under 20	20-99	100-499	500-2500	Over 2500
Number of organizations	18	49	51	45	20
Qualifications	Percent of employers requiring qualification				
High-school diploma	33	30	24	30	16
Ability to read	83	92	82	91	70
Ability to write	83	92	82	89	70
Good personal appearance	72	75	69	71	65
Work experience, general	29	26	22	23	15
Job training, specific	35	34	24	27	25
Experience, specific	24	26	20	23	20
Job references	39	47	47	55	40
Pass test	41	30	28	48	74

Although more than 60 percent of the former participants interviewed quit their WIN jobs voluntarily, most claimed they liked the nature of the work and got along well with their supervisors and coworkers. Yet most of those who quit attributed their leaving to dissatisfaction with some aspect of the job rather than to related problems such as transportation, illness, or child care. While only a few said they quit because of low pay, 67 percent of those employed reported that their current job paid more than their WIN job. Over half the former participants spent less than 4 months on their WIN jobs.

Asked for suggestions for improving the program, ex-enrollees most often called for more skill training. "Only one of the 242 respondents to this question felt that WIN should provide more educational courses," the report notes.

The researchers also point out that "there was almost no mention of problems associated with adjusting to the 'world of work' or other nontask-related difficulties that the orientation component or supportive services of WIN are intended to mitigate."

Their WIN experience apparently helped a number of former enrollees move out of the operative and laboring jobs they had held before WIN and into clerical, craftsmen, and foremen occupations. Only 4 percent, for example, were in the craftsmen, foremen, and kindred category before WIN, and 11 percent afterwards.

"These findings suggest that job turnover of former WIN enrollees—which is often viewed by WIN personnel and employers alike as an indication of program failure—should not be uniformly interpreted in negative terms," the report says. "In almost half the cases when WIN placements lasted only a short time, the former enrollees continued to be gainfully employed, often in more desirable jobs than those located immediately following WIN enrollment."

Other findings of the study:

- WIN employees are more successful in small organizations where close, informal relationships and a flexible atmosphere prevail.
- Arrest and prison records are more likely to be grounds for disqualification in public employment than in the private sector.
- Large bureaucratic nongovernment organizations and those in the manufacturing and financial fields are more likely than other employers to require strict adherence to on-the-job work rules involving such matters as safety, dress, and conduct. Drug use, alcoholism, and similar problems are particularly unacceptable to supervisors in wholesale and retail trade and in the transportation and utilities industry.
- Employers in government and in financial and service industries are most tolerant of tardiness and absenteeism. Least tolerant are employers in outdoor laboring occupations such as mining and construction.

The report makes a number of recommendations for improving WIN:

- Local WIN Program officers should actively seek out small employers, especially the numerous "one-man" organizations such as beauty parlors and small retailers not previously the target of placement efforts. The WIN Program should be described to them as a source of employees who will be as good as or better than employees hired through other channels.
- WIN orientation should emphasize to enrollees that for employment success adherence to rules, proper work attitudes, and good personal appearance are at least as important as job performance. Enrollees who balk at rules governing on-the-job conduct, dress, and safety should be cautioned against seeking work in large nongovernment organizations, particularly in the manufacturing and financial fields.
- WIN should provide skill training just sufficient for job entry.

> '. . . WIN provides opportunity and incentive for a substantial number of capable, motivated welfare recipients to receive training that can serve as a means for obtaining satisfying jobs at salaries sufficient to support themselves and their families.'

- Enrollees interested in service jobs such as nurse aide and waitress should be informed that employers in these occupations place particular importance on personal appearance and grooming.
- Enrollees with arrest and prison records should be cautioned about seeking jobs with the Federal Government and with small one-man businesses, because of the greater likelihood of rejection.
- Because of the importance attributed by employers to good health among jobseekers, WIN should ensure that enrollees have thorough physical exams before entering the program and that they be in good health before being placed.
- WIN enrollees with problems that lead to frequent tardiness or absenteeism should be encouraged to seek jobs in large organizations, particularly those in government and in the financial and service areas.

The report concludes that WIN provides "opportunity and incentive for a substantial number of capable, motivated welfare recipients to receive training that can serve as a means for obtaining satisfying jobs at salaries sufficient to support themselves and their families."

It further observes that:

"These findings lead to the inescapable conclusion that urging employers to facilitate the process of integration of disadvantaged workers by accommodating to them is misplaced, at least as the WIN Program currently operates. Evidently the program operates such that the proportion of entering enrollees who eventually end up placed on a job—a distinct minority—are already 'successes' in a major sense of the word. That is, those enrollees who are employable move through the program and are placed on jobs, while the truly disadvantaged, those with severe physical, emotional, and situational problems, either are not recruited for the program or drop out before reaching placement status.

"This selective operation may be a realistic adjustment by WIN Program directors to what is perhaps an impossible task: Preparing the truly 'hard core' welfare recipients—the physically and emotionally handicapped—for responsible employment." □

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R&D Reports

Following is a selected list of reports on research and development projects funded by the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. Copies of reports designated as NTIS are available from the National Technical Information Services, Springfield, Va. 22151 for $3.00 for a paper copy or 95 cents for microfiche. Send remittance with order and specify accession number (PB plus six-digit number). For reports not designated NTIS, single copies are available from the Office of Research and Development Utilization, U.S. Department of Labor, 1111 20th St., NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Special arrangements may be made for bulk orders.

Wheels Within Wheels: Transportation Opportunity Program

Description and assessment of 3 years' operation under research and development funding of a truck driver and auto mechanic training program. NTIS (PB 202934).

Basic Occupational Language Training (BOLT)

Description of a unique language training program to help people obtain the verbal, aural, and written English language skills necessary for finding and holding a good job, gaining entry into manpower training programs, and participating in the civic lives of their communities. NTIS (PB 205424).

Recruiting, Placing, and Retaining the Hard-to-Employ: A Study of Factors Influencing the Retention of Participants in a Concentrated Employment Program and in Their Subsequent Employment

Study of the experiences of actual and potential enrollees upon initital contact with the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) in Columbus, Ohio to (1) determine why potential enrollees did not become actively involved in the program, and why some enrollees drop out before completion, and (2) to examine the labor market experience of CEP participants after they left the program. NTIS (PB 204600).

Impact Upon the Organization of Hiring the Disadvantaged: Report of a Study of Two Companies

Report of a case study of two organizations and their experience in hiring disadvantaged persons, primarily blacks. From an analysis of organizations' experiences the authors have abstracted some principles which would be helpful to employers who are going to hire the disadvantaged. NTIS (PB 205306).

Educational Advancement and Manpower Development for Wage Earners

Cooperative undertaking by industrial management, labor unions, the public employment service, and a university, to test new approaches to upgrading careers and lives of locked-in minority group workers by bringing them and educational opportunities together. Report can be used as handbook for others interested in conducting similar programs. NTIS (PB 205851).

Guidelines for the Development of Manpower Educational Services in the University

A "how to" manual based on experiences of the University of Houston's Center for Human Resources illustrating, through liberal use of case studies, how a university can contribute significantly to improved understanding and functioning of manpower programs operating within its geographical area. NTIS (PB 206533).

Employment Contexts and Disadvantaged Workers

National survey of 280 organizations currently employing 280 graduates of 14 WIN projects. Part I describes basic organizational features of these WIN employers—organizational size, type, principal activity—and compares kinds of jobs of the sample WIN workers—occupational distribution, hours worked, wages—and those of all workers nationally. Part II describes the experiences of a group of former WIN enrollees who found jobs following their enrollment in WIN but subsequently left those jobs.

An Experimental Labor Market Information Program to Encourage Self-Initiated Job Search by Selected Registrants With Public Employment Service Offices

Study testing effectiveness of a number of different approaches and mechanisms for providing supplementary job search information to job-ready public employment service applicants. NTIS (PB 204594).

Inter-Organizational Relations and Inner City Manpower Programs

Two-year (June 1969-71) comparative study of inner city manpower agencies in Cleveland, New York, and Philadelphia and how politics and administration affect the delivery of manpower services.

Proceeding of National Conference on State and Local Manpower Planning

Report of a national conference of 250 manpower planners from Federal, State, and local government convened to share experiences, explore principles of manpower planning, review some of the administrative structures which have been set up experimentally for planning in a few cities and States, and discuss the appropriate relationships between Federal, State, and local governments.

Manpower for the Human Services

A series of five monographs devoted to a number of issues in manpower planning and program development for the human services occupations.

I—An Overview of the Work Progress Report — describes origins, objectives, and staff of the Human Services Manpower Career Center.

II—Career Systems in State Human Services Agencies—describes design of career opportunity systems in Illinois human services agencies.

III—Core Curriculum for Entry and Middle Level Workers in Human Service Agencies — a core curriculum for the training of workers in State human services agencies.

IV—Community Organization For Allied Health Manpower — a problem-solving model.

V—Neighborhood-Based Child Care Services for the Inner City.

Upgrading: Three Years' Experience in Cleveland

Report provides analyses and perspectives on experience of skill upgrading in Cleveland. Major sections of the report are devoted to discussing a unique upgrading method, "Advanced High Intensity Training," developing upgrading programs with employers, training methods, institutionalizing in-plant training, the role of the city of Cleveland and sponsor of the project, and recommendations for the formulation of future upgrading efforts.

Career Patterns and Values: A Study of Men and Women in Science and Engineering

Report of a study which compared career patterns of male and female scientists and engineers. The barriers faced by women who wish to enter these professions are examined, as are their ages, social class, education, and marital and family status. In this context, differences between men and women in career patterns, rewards and achievements, and occupational values are explored.

Training the Laid-Off Worker

Report of the first year activities of a demonstration program designed to determine feasibility of providing meaningful nonskill training to persons out of work due to layoff. The project contends that cyclical or seasonal layoff time should and can be put to constructive use by workers in a training program designed to improve their general performance and promotability upon return to work.

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